The Outlook

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THE STORY OF THE WAR

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THE OUTLOOK'S WAR CORRESPONDENT AT HOME

ANOTHER week has passed—September 30 to October 7—without any decisive results in the Battle of Northern France; the fighting has extended over too great an area to be longer called after any one river.

No important alterations in the battle line have been reported from the Allies' right or center. Conflicts, which are said to be of decreasing vigor, are still in progress on the line from the Vosges north to the neighborhood of Verdun and westward from Verdun through Rheims to Noyon. The Allies' left has not been able to envelop von Kluck's army. There have been pendulum swings back and forth; some districts have been fought over four or five times.

The two outstanding facts of the week are: first, and most important, seven more days have passed without any notable victory for the Germans; second, the Allies' left wing has gradually pushed north until its influence has been felt in Belgium and may soon reduce the pressure on Antwerp.

ANTWERP

What is happening about Antwerp is very obscure. It hardly seems credible that the Germans would, at this juncture, undertake the extra work of an unnecessary siege. But the "official" reports of the Belgian and German General Staffs, which contradict each other on every other point, agree that the outer ring of the Antwerp forts is being heavily shelled. And the British censor allows a despatch to pass which indicates that the bombardment of the city itself is imminent.

The Belgian army of approximately a quarter of a million men has been a thorn in the flesh to the Germans from the beginning, and has of late been an ever-present menace to their lines of communication. And it requires at least as large a German army to hold them in check. If things were going smoothly for the Germans elsewhere, nothing would be more natural than for them to attempt the capture of Antwerp. Aside from the value of the city itself, the main Belgian force is practically cornered there. Driven from this stronghold, they would either have to cross the frontier into Holland and be disarmed, or attempt to retreat towards Ostend through a very narrow gap, which has probably already been occupied by the Germans. Antwerp is a river port, not a seaport, and the Scheldt runs through Holland. The city can be provisioned by water through this neutral territory, but it cannot be reinforced.

The destruction of the Belgian army would free the two or three hundred thousand Germans now facing them for work against the French and English. But while this number is enough to keep the Belgians bottled up in Antwerp, it would be an almost incredible feat of arms to capture the city without heavy reinforcements. And all the reports—even those from Berlin—indicate that the Germans need every man they can find elsewhere.

I am inclined to think that their attack on Antwerp has not been serious. They have a large number of their famous 11-inch field mortars, with which they demolished the forts of Liège and Namur, ready for the siege of Paris. And I imagine that to keep them from idleness they are now being used to smash up the defenses of Antwerp. But I will be surprised if they develop a serious infantry attack. And not even these deadly Krupp siege guns can take a city by themselves.

The light Belgian dog-drawn machine guns have already proved their efficiency, and it is reported that they have been reinforced by heavy English artillery. The Belgian infantry have been seasoned by two months'

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campaigning, and very likely they also have been reinforced. Smashing up the outer ring of its Antwerp forts will not materially reduce the fighting power of this little army.

If the Germans could spare half a million men for a week or two, they could probably take the city, smother the Belgian army, and be free for service elsewhere. But this half million men seems to be more needed at this moment in other places. It might turn the balance of chance on the Aisne or in Poland. I can think of only two contingencies which would justify the Germans in detaching a large force from the principal campaigns for this side issue.

Some weeks ago I referred to the rumor that Russian troops had been landed at Ostend. Certainly—now as then—the Allies, if they could conjure up a new army, could find no more desirable place for it. We have had ominously little news from Ostend. It is possible that in the two months of the war the small force of English marines who landed there may have been reinforced to threatening proportions. If the German air scouts have brought back reports of serious danger there, the German position is indeed desperate. This new peril would be twice as formidable with the Belgian army still intact in Antwerp. But with the city in German hands the danger from Ostend would be greatly lessened. The German General Staff would be justified in taking great risks elsewhere to meet such a situation.

It is also possible that the Germans are less seriously pressed along the battle line in France than the French and English reports lead us to believe. In that case they might be able to spare the necessary infantry to co-operate with their heavy artillery before Antwerp.

If we hear in the next week that the Germans are seriously pushing this siege, it will mean either that relief for the Belgians is approaching from France or Ostend or that the German military situation is much more favorable than the recent despatches indicate. It will be a great surprise if the Germans take Antwerp.

THE EASTERN CAMPAIGN

Russia has now had two months to complete her mobilization, which she began, at least in part, before the declaration of war. Her forces ought now to be close to their maximum. It is probably very much less than the 6,000,000 claimed. Of course, Russia has an almost limitless supply of men, but it is extremely improbable that she has modern equipment for so large a number. She could maintain her army at the maximum for several years in spite of heavy daily losses, while the effectives of the French and German armies are decreasing more rapidly than recruits can be found.

According to the "Statesman's Year Book," France spent on her army in the fiscal year 1913–14 about $287,298,300. France expects to equip and put into the field around 3,000,000 men; the estimates vary from two millions to four; roughly, one man per hundred dollars.

The Russian military budget for the same period was between $375,000,000 and $400,000,000. But a very large part of this appropriation was absorbed by the army reorganization, which meant the "scrapping" of much old material and the buying of a larger quantity of equipment per man than the French. Once the "reorganization" was completed, she could put as many men in the field for each hundred dollars spent as France, but she certainly cannot do so to-day. I doubt very much whether she can—in spite of her larger population and greater expenditures—put more men fully equipped in the field than France.

And Russia cannot utilize all her force on her western frontier. Large parts of Siberia, Mongolia, and the Transcaspian require military guards. She is not loved enough in Persia to dare to withdraw her troops from there. And she is probably holding large forces in the Caucasus near the Turkish frontier.

If to-day, after two months to prepare for action, she has two million men in the field against Austria and Germany, she is doing very well. Under the most favorable circumstances, I do not see how she could muster three million for this campaign.

The Russian General Staff, and their friends the French and English, with whom they discussed their plans, of course knew their resources. Within a week after the declaration of war they could gather a million men in the concentration camps within a hundred miles of the frontier. This does not mean that they could throw anything like this number at any one point, but the men would be under arms, ready for a campaign, some of them much nearer the border. Within two months they could double the number.

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DRAWN FOR THE OUTLOOK BY RUDOLPH SCHOENE

THE EASTERN THEATER OF WAR

(The heavy dot-and-dash lines divide western Russia from eastern Germany, and show the frontier of Austria at the south of those two countries.)

The three main railway centers of western Russia, near which are the principal army concentration camps, are Vilna, Brest-Litowsk, and Kiev (which is not shown on our map, but which is located to the southeast of Brest-Litowsk). Within two weeks probably a million men passed through these camps towards the frontier.

In the first rush in the northern campaign the Russian advance guards approached the Vistula River above Thorn. They were defeated in a pitched battle near Allenstein and driven back to the Niemen. Heavily reinforced, they defeated the Germans on the line from Ossowitz, north through Augustow to Suwalki. And, according to the despatches of October 7, the Russians have once more crossed the frontier into East Prussia near Lyck.

The position of the armies in Poland is unknown. The German line of resistance will probably have its left flank based on Thorn and its right flank on Cracow. Their advance posts are certainly much farther east. Very likely the approaching battle will be named after the river Warta.

In the south the Russians are in control of all the Austrian territory above the Carpathian Mountains and east of Tarnow, with the exception of the fortress of Przemysl. Cossack squadrons have passed through the Uzsok Pass and have been reported at Ungvar and Sziget. The Russians are trying to force their way to Cracow. A Vienna despatch of October 7 speaks of fighting near Neu Sandec.

Against them they would have three, possibly four, German army corps when war was declared—roughly, 150,000 men. And within two weeks this number could be doubled or trebled by reserves, as the German mobilization is much more rapid. Austria-Hungary's standing army has an effective of a little less than half a million, which she could double in two weeks, and could in time—theoretically—raise to more than two millions. How many she could put on her frontier at the outset of the war was doubtful.

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Servia and Montenegro could put a quarter of a million men in the field and could be counted on to keep that number of Austrians busy. Austria was expected to send substantial assistance to Germany for the French campaign. But uncertainty over Italy's attitude reduced her help to two, or at most three, army corps. In the first stages of the war Austria could not have put more than half a million men in Galicia. The military expert of the "Scientific American" estimates six army corps of 34,000 each—less than a quarter of a million.

These were the rough outlines of the strategic problem which faced Russia. At the outbreak of the war she would have more men near her frontier than the enemy. But the enemy's means of communication were much better. They could dispose their men to better effect. And, as their mobilization was much more rapid, within two weeks the numerical superiority would be theirs, to swing back with time to the Russians. And unless the Germans could quickly smash the French and bring their western army to the east, the Russians would permanently and largely outnumber their enemies.

The goal of Russian strategy must be Berlin—the heart of Germany. There were three roads: (*a*) the northern route through East Prussia; (*b*) the central route through Poland; and (*c*) the southern route through Galicia.

The East Prussian route is long. There are few roads, and cross-country movement is almost impossible because of the lakes and marshes. And the way is blocked by the Vistula River, which is heavily fortified. It is the least attractive route of the three.

Poland has few of the disadvantages of the East Prussia route and many advantages. The railways converging on Warsaw are good. Brest-Litowsk, the great concentration camp, while it is too far from the frontier to be used as the base for a sudden attack, is, on account of this distance from danger, an ideal place for assembling and co-ordinating a large army. The vital spots in Germany are not far from the Polish border. But the route has the grave disadvantage of being exposed on each flank. The network of strategic railways in Prussia would allow large forces to be concentrated on the north of any army advancing from Warsaw, and the Austrians would be to the south.

The Galician route was much longer than the Polish, but it had manifest advantages. Much of the population was Slavic and might rise in welcome to the Russians. It was territory which the Czars had coveted for centuries. Troops from the populous southern districts of Russia could be concentrated there more rapidly than farther north. A blow at Austria would relieve the pressure on Servia and would do much to increase the prestige of Russia throughout the Balkans. It was also generally recognized that the Austrian army was less formidable than the German. It was good policy to strike at the weakest spot. And, in case of success, the forces in Galicia could easily be merged with the main advance through Poland.

All this was obvious. The snapper in the Russian plan was the raid into East Prussia. It was eminently successful. Even if the Russians do not reconquer the territory which for a few days they occupied and from which they were driven, they have accomplished their purpose in this campaign. German attention was called to the north. Their offensive movement into Poland must have been weakened to resist this attack, and Austria was left alone to meet an overwhelming Russian army single-handed. The Germans rushed their reserves—and there are continual reports that they even withdrew first-line troops from France—to East Prussia. I doubt if there were more than one hundred thousand Russians in this raid. They were driven back to the Niemen River, where they held the Germans till reinforcements once more gave them numerical superiority. They report a hard battle and another "great victory" at Augustow. The future operations in this northern theater will probably be less important than those of the last two months. General Rennenkampff, the Russian commander, will have it for his duty to protect the northern (right) flank of the Army of Poland—*i. e.*, to keep the German forces in East Prussia too busy to trouble it. Of course, if he can reoccupy East Prussia, and reduce Königsberg and the Vistula fortresses, it will be advantageous for the Russians, but it can hardly have more than secondary importance.

The moment war was declared both Austria and Germany invaded Russian Poland. Of the German advance we have very scant details. It was probably much weakened by the diversion of troops to East Prussia. One Berlin despatch announced the occupation of Lodz. And recent reports indicate fighting even nearer to Warsaw. The Russians ap-

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parently put up very little resistance. The Austrians advanced as far as Lublin. The concentration base for the Russian Center Army was at Brest-Litowsk, farther east than either of these raids was likely to go. The raids could do relatively little damage, and the more men who were employed on them, and so kept away from Galicia, the better.

While all the available Germans were busy in East Prussia and northwest Poland, and a large part of the Austrian force was working down the Vistula towards Lublin, the Russians shot their main bolt at the Austrians in Galicia. How many men they employed is not certain, but half a million ought to have been ample. It was the most successful campaign so far developed in the war. The right wing of the Austrians was smashed at Lemberg and that city was occupied. The Austrian center was defeated at Tomaszow and Rawaruska. The left, which had advanced to Lublin, was forced to a rapid retreat. It may have been involved with the center at Tomaszow. The Austrians were so shaken that, although the Russians gave them plenty of time, they were not able to reform on the San. The Russians forced a passage at the strongly fortified city of Jaroslav. The backbone of the Austrian military force seems to have been broken. It is reported that German staff officers are now in command of the remnants, and are trying to reorganize them for the defense of Cracow—with some success, for the Russians seem to have been checked at Tarnow. But the Austrians, badly beaten in Galicia and having a desperate time with the Servians in the south, threatened by Italy and Rumania, are hardly likely to render much further assistance to Germany.

The Cossack raids over the Carpathians into Hungary can have little significance from a strictly military point of view. They may cut a few railways and hinder the recruiting of reserves, but their real explanation is probably political. Except for such side excursions and the siege of Przemysl this Russian Army of the Left has done its work in Galicia. It can be merged with the Central Army of Poland, which by now—with two months spent in preparation—ought to number over a million men and be ready for the main advance on Germany.

So the first stage of the war has passed with the honors to Russia. The second stage has already begun. The despatches tell of advance-guard actions in a number of places along the line from Cracow to Thorn. It is a much more serious problem than any the Russians have yet faced. The Germans have been in western Poland for two months now; just how far they have penetrated we do not know. Some time ago we heard that they were fortifying Kalisz. They have had ample time to pick out a favorable position and to throw up extensive field defenses—much more time than they had to prepare their lines on the Aisne, which are holding so stubbornly. And they have had time to bring up all their available force. They will not be heavily outnumbered—at least at first.

It is to be in many respects like the battle now raging in France—the front is long, the number of men engaged is immense. And it will also be like the Battle of the Aisne in that a defeat for the Germans might well be decisive, but a victory for them cannot be. If the Russians win, the next battle will be perilously near the heart of Germany. If the Russians are annihilated, they will find a new army and the next battle will still be far from their vitals. Here, as in the West, the Germans must not only win, but go on winning.

This battle will be a test much more desperate than the Russians have yet faced. It is the first time they have met the Germans in a prepared position. It is in every way a more serious job than they had on their hands in Galicia. A German of my acquaintance is quite confident of the outcome. "So far," he says, "a third-class army has defeated a fourth-class army. Now it has to face a first-class one." Certainly the German army has proved its right to a place in the first class. Whether the Russian army will rank as third class—or first—depends on this battle which is just beginning.

RUMANIA

The explanation of the daring Cossack raids across the Carpathians is very probably to be found in the political effect of these operations on Rumania. This country is the best example of mediæval feudalism which is left in Europe. The Government is entirely dominated by a small group of landlords. They have always been wealthy —vastly so of late, since oil has begun to bubble up through their rich wheat-fields. Rumania now ranks fourth or fifth among the countries of the world for the export of petroleum. The position of the peasants is miserable, and the percentage of the recruits who are illiterate is larger than in any other

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Christian country; in 1910 it was more than forty per cent. Probably over sixty per cent of the people above seven years of age can neither read nor write.

In the Russo-Turkish War of 1877–8 the Rumanian army helped the Russians to win the Battle of Plevna, and felt themselves very badly used in the division of the spoils. It is hardly possible to speak of a "national sentiment" in Rumania, but the small ruling class became violently anti-Russian. The King is a Hohenzollern, and up till the second Balkan War Rumania was counted as a sure asset to the Triple Alliance. When her neighbor Bulgaria was attacked on two sides, by Servia and Greece on the west and Turkey on the east, Rumania stepped in and—without a battle, as the Bulgars were already defeated—annexed a large strip of Bulgarian territory. Austria, who did not want to see Bulgaria annihilated, would not let Rumania take all she wanted. So, again feeling herself aggrieved, Rumania turned against the Alliance. Russian diplomats have been busy in Bucharest, and it has been very hard for the Rumanians to make up their mind which side they are on. A great many of the peasants in Transylvania (Hungary) speak Rumanian, but so also do many in Bessarabia (Russia). If Rumania helps Russia to defeat Austria, she may get Transylvania; if she helps Austria defeat Russia, she may be given Bessarabia. She is between the devil and the deep-blue sea. The King is loyal to his family, but the ruling class of Rumania is loyal to the best chance. They would evidently like to do as they did in the Balkan War—wait till the victory is decided and then jump on the defeated.

But Russia is impatient. She has undoubtedly offered Transylvania to Rumania if she will help, but by sending her Cossacks into Hungary she is plainly saying: If you do not decide to take this province very quickly, I will take it myself.

New York, October 7, 1914.

THE WEEK

PRAYER AND WAR

Never before in the history of the world have the people of one continent, without respect to race or religion, united in special services of prayer for another continent. President Wilson's appeal to the people of the United States that they should observe scrupulous neutrality was made more impressive and significant by his appeal that the first Sunday in October should be observed as a day of special intercession for peace among the warring nations. To that appeal religious people of all churches and of no church responded; Protestants, Roman Catholics, and Jews were at one in their common spirit of sympathy with the sorrows and misery of the warring countries, and in their desire that the day of peace might not be long deferred. In many places out-of-door meetings were held; clergymen of denominations which do not often co-operate spoke from the same platform or the same pulpit.

The day was made significant by the character of the petitions offered. They were not, as a rule, prayers to a tribal God; they were not petitions for immediate peace; they were rather confessions of the existence of conditions which invite war and make it still possible. They were confessions of sin; and they were prayers for such a change in the spirit and hearts of men as will make peace possible.

Dr. Hadley, speaking at Yale University, said: "Unless we follow up our prayers by intelligent help in promoting peace on earth they are but the 'vain repetitions' of the heathen. They may have a certain use as a public recognition of the controlling power of God over the affairs of men; otherwise they are no better than peace parades and the children's peace cards and other similar manifestations of misdirected zeal with which we are now familiar. People think they are doing their duty when they are simply indulging the luxury of expressing their own emotions in public. To expect such prayer to be answered is folly on the part of the ignorant and blasphemy on the part of those who should be wiser. . . . To pray effectually we must take thought. We must find what were the causes at work in men's minds which led them to forget themselves in their zeal for fighting."

This lays the emphasis where it belongs. It is idle to pray for peace unless we work for it; and we do not work for it when we

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simply express a desire that it may come. Peace cannot come until there is justice between nations; and while permanent peace ought to be held steadily before men, not only as an ideal, but as a necessary achievement of civilization, it ought to be worked for even more than prayed for. We must remove the obstacles to peace before we have a right to ask the God of Peace to establish it among the warring nations of the world.

It is a profanation of the great and sacred function of prayer to ask for peace and happiness and continue the habits and practices which make peace and happiness impossible. There is a legal maxim that he who comes into a court of equity must come with clean hands; it is a kind of blasphemy to ask for peace unless we make every effort to put hatred and greed out of the world.

EMBASSIES IN WAR TIME

Proper provision for the housing of American embassies and legations abroad and proper appropriations for salaries of ambassadors and ministers have sometimes been opposed in Congress by members who have declared that the diplomatic service abroad is essentially un-American and undemocratic; that it is infected with snobbishness and that the necessary interchange of views between different governments can be carried on by correspondence. These arguments were always in the mouths of men without the experience of foreign travel. If any further refutation of them were necessary, it has been furnished by the experiences of the last two months.

Professor George P. Wilson, of Harvard, who has just returned from abroad, gives some account of the invaluable services rendered to Americans by Dr. van Dyke as Minister to the Netherlands and the Legation at The Hague.

The declaration of war caused a general financial panic. The majority of the banks temporarily stopped payment; letters of credit and checks were for a time use less. This left an army of American travelers in real distress. Dr. van Dyke, who enjoyed the fullest confidence of the Dutch Government, at once conferred with the Dutch Foreign Minister and effected an arrangement between the two Governments under which checks, drafts, and letters of credit indorsed by Dr. van Dyke were cashed by the Netherlands Bank or by the Treasurer of the Netherlands; and on August 3, at the very beginning of the trouble, Dr. van Dyke was able to put into force an arrangement of his own devising which entirely relieved the financial strain and enabled him to give Americans all necessary money. After that date there never was an hour of financial distress; nor was there any cessation of the strenuous work of the Legation.

In the storm which swept Europe Holland was an island of refuge. Americans came there from all parts and immediately reported to the Legation. They went to the Legation for information, for addresses of places at which to stay, for advice, and for money; and the Legation was open night and day to aid them. Not only that, but the whereabouts of thousands of missing and wounded of several nations were investigated and ascertained. The Hague was a kind of postal exchange—all communications to Germany and Austria and from Germany and Austria were sent through that town; and the Legation was flooded with telegrams and letters from all parts of the world. A large fund was contributed by Americans and placed in the hands of Dr. van Dyke and spent in relieving special cases of distress. Under his tireless and zealous activity the Legation, to quote the words of an American who was present at The Hague, became "an international bank, an inquiry bureau, a registry office, a diplomatic post, and a consolation agency for nervous and unhappy people."

Dr. Wilson says that it is impossible to praise too highly the work of Dr. van Dyke. All day long he was constantly giving words of encouragement and comfort to those who were distressed. No finer example of Christian comfort and sympathy could be given than the daily acts of our American Minister at The Hague. Dr. van Dyke enjoys the confidence of his colleagues of every nation represented at The Hague, and to the greatest degree of the Dutch people, who regard his appointment because of his Dutch ancestry as particularly pleasing, and a signal recognition on the part of the United States of the cordial relations existing between the Government of the Netherlands and that of the United States.

THE JAPANESE POSITION

The conditions under which Japan declared war against Germany are now very clear.

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For a long time past the Japanese have gravely distrusted German aims in the Far East. They had not forgotten that after the arrangement of the terms of peace at the close of the war with China, by which Japan had secured the Liaoyang Peninsula, it was Germany that persuaded Russia and France to interfere and prevent the consummation of the treaty. Within three years these Powers had possessed themselves of large pieces of Chinese territory. Nor have they forgotten the famous "Yellow Peril" speech of the Kaiser, which, they believe, has done more than all other causes to prejudice the West against Japan. They believe that when they were engaged in a life-and-death struggle in Manchuria the German Government, in its attitude towards Russia, violated its neutrality and permitted a German steamship company to sell a number of steamships to the Russian navy, and helped the Russian Baltic Squadron to secure coal *en route* to the Japan Sea.

Before Japan had taken any action, last August, a German cruiser, disregarding Japanese sovereignty, seized a Russian steamer in Japanese waters, and British merchantmen in the same seas were repeatedly chased and seized. The Japanese declare that Japanese ships were intercepted and their cargoes taken. In answer to the statement that Japan took the occasion to declare war in advance of any request from England, it is stated that the day before England declared war on Germany the British Ambassador in Tokyo informed Baron Kato, the Japanese Minister of Foreign Affairs, that his Government was compelled to open hostilities, and asked whether Japan would aid England if British interests in the Far East were jeopardized. On the evening of the same day the Prime Minister convened a meeting of all the Cabinet members; and on the following day Baron Kato notified the British Ambassador that Japan would not shirk the responsibilities which the alliance with England put upon her shoulders. On August 7 the British Ambassador again waited upon the Foreign Minister and notified him that England asked for Japan's assistance without delay. Thereupon Japan sent her ultimatum to Germany, demanding the evacuation of Tsingtau, the disarming of the warships there, and the handing over of the territory to Japan, to be ultimately passed on to China. The time fixed in the ultimatum having passed, the German Ambassador's passports were handed to him and war was formally declared.

In the Imperial decree it was stated that Germany was busy with warlike preparation at Kiaochau; that her armed vessels crossing the seas of eastern Asia were threatening Japanese and English commerce; that after full and frank communications with the English Government Japan had agreed to take such measures as might be deemed necessary for the protection of the general interests contemplated in the agreement of the Alliance. It is stated by trustworthy authority that, although there is a widespread feeling of gratitude among the Japanese for all that Japan has learned from Germany, there is also a conviction that most of Japan's troubles during the last few years have been the outcome of German influence in Europe and America, and that the war is immensely popular with all classes in Japan. These facts dispose of the charge that Japan has wantonly made war for her own purposes, and that she has obtruded herself, so to speak, among the European nations in the hope of advancing her own position.

THE DIRIGIBLE BALLOON AND ITS USE IN WAR

Military aircraft have certainly not revolutionized warfare, nor have they done the tremendous amount of damage to life and property which some enthusiastic aeronauts prophesy and some impressionable civilians fear. Nevertheless, they have played a more successful and useful (if that word may be employed in connection with instruments of destruction) part in the European war than the newspaper correspondents have credited them with. While the French have devoted themselves largely to the heavier-than-air flying-machines, the Germans have pinned their faith to the gas-filled balloon. In this respect the Germans, with their characteristic efficiency, are following the experimental history of a century.

When the Frenchman Montgolfier with his balloon filled with hot air rose for the first time in 1785, it was assumed that this great problem was solved and the possibility of navigation of the air was secured. Even then aeronauts tried to make such spherical balloons dirigible by providing them with sails and rudders. The trials were failures and cost many lives. The fundamental laws were not sufficiently known, and the experiments were given up. A century later the

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problem was attacked again. Krebs, a Frenchman, Schwarz, an Austrian, and others tried to move their balloons by mechanical power, but their engines were by far too heavy for their power. The weight of their engines probably was at least fifty pounds per horse-power, far too much for the capacity of their balloons even in quiet air. The first to succeed was Santos Dumont, the Brazilian, at the end of the nineteenth century. Like some of his predecessors, he used cylindrical, cigar-shaped balloons, from which the hulls or carriers were suspended. Success came with the use of gasoline motors, as used in automobiles, because of the much lower comparative weight of the engines and fuel. Dumont's balloons were all of the flexible kind, without any metallic stiffening, and the hull or carrier hung from a netting covering the balloon.

THE THREE TYPES OF DIRIGIBLES: THE PARSEVAL

The progress above described did not suffice to make the balloon a practical means of traveling and transportation. It took years before this was accomplished. Three types of systems were developed: flexible, half-rigid, and rigid balloons were built. Many different constructions appeared, especially from the workshops of inventors and navigators. In Germany these three types were introduced by three men, all military officers: Major Parseval, Major Gross, and General Count Zeppelin. Parseval's flexible balloon, in order to keep its shape even after great loss of gas, contains two air-bags near its ends which are filled by a ventilator, and are thus kept more or less inflated according to necessity. This arrangement is most ingenious, as simple as it is effective. It enables the navigator to steer the balloon vertically by filling or emptying the ballonets, as these air-bags are called, at one end or the other, thereby lifting or lowering one end or the other of the balloon. Another great advantage is the facility with which balloons of this kind are launched or landed—an essential for safety where there are no sheds or hangars. In cases of unexpected landing the flexible balloons present less danger than other types, and in fact no losses of Parseval air-ships from this cause have ever occurred. A Parseval balloon can be landed and dismantled in about an hour. It can be transported in three heavy freight carts. The suspending lines for the hull are run over pulleys and ingeniously arranged so that it will remain level even when the balloon itself is tilted up or down at a decided angle.

The stability of the Parseval type has been conclusively demonstrated. Air-ships of this type are manufactured by a German stock company, the Luftfahrzeug-Gesellschaft in Berlin, which up to last year had built more than twenty dirigibles of different sizes not only for the German Government, but for Austria, Italy, Russia, England, Japan, and Turkey. The first ones built had a capacity of 1,500 to 2,000 cubic meters (about 55,000 to 73,000 cubic feet) and their speed was 40 to 50 kilometers (25 to 32 miles) per hour. They are now built with 8,800 to 10,000 cubic meters (about 300,000 to 360,000 cubic feet) capacity and capable of a speed of 70 to 80 kilometers (about 40 to 50 miles) per hour.

THE HALF-RIGID TYPE

A second class of dirigible air-ships are those built by the German Government after the plans of Major Gross. These are of the half-rigid type. Major Gross's air-ships have a metallic keel, above which the balloon is fastened and from which is hung the carrier. The keel, by giving a certain stiffness to the air-ship, guarantees its dirigibility. In a French experiment with an air-ship of a similar type the rigid part was bent and broken by the pressure of the wind, the balloon torn open, and a terrible accident was the result. The Gross dirigibles have special devices to provide against just such accidents. The vertical steering is chiefly done by movable weights running on rails along the keel. The stability of these balloons lengthwise as well as laterally is perfect.

The defects of both the Parseval and Gross systems are that dirigibles of these types are limited in carrying capacity, in radius of action, and in speed. High speed is a source of safety in bad weather and against head winds and gales. Their usefulness in warfare is therefore questionable. Their destructibility by shrapnel is also a great military defect.

THE ZEPPELIN

Count Zeppelin began his experiments on quite different principles. He proposed to create an air-ship to be sailed and controlled in the air as the giant ships are navigated in

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the ocean. He desired to transport a number of passengers and considerable freight without danger even in heavy weather. Greater carrying capacity, speed, and radius of action were his goal. So he gave his balloon a rigid skeleton made of rings and angles of aluminum, and covered it with impregnated cloth. Inside he put the real lifting power—a row of gas-filled ballonets.

In his first experimental balloon, in 1902, he had nine ballonets. His first engines were two Maybach motors of 75 to 100 horse-power each. He could carry over two tons, and had a speed of 60 kilometers (about 40 miles) an hour. The dirigibility of his ship was perfect from the beginning.

In spite of a number of serious accidents, and after sacrificing his fortune, Zeppelin at last conquered public opinion, obtained the support financially of the German people and Government, and went on improving and enlarging his balloons, and making them suitable for service in peace and war.

A modern war Zeppelin may be described as follows: Capacity, 30,000 to 35,000 cubic meters (1,100,000 to 1,300,000 cubic feet); speed, 100 kilometers per hour (62 miles); radius of action, 36 to 40 hours in the air at full speed; height of rising, 3,000 to 3,500 meters (10,000 to 12,000 feet); propelling power, four motors of 125 to 150 horse-power each, connected by belts with the propellers. The two hulls carry two propellers each. A third hull is provided for commander and pilot. An open air-shaft in the center of the balloon affords free vision to the sky. The vertical steering is done mainly by dynamical apparatus, but also by throwing out ballast. Ample provision is made against loss of gas. The gas, when heated by radiation of the sun, is cooled by strong ventilation. The surface of the balloon case is painted with aluminum paint, which keeps it from overheating. The number of gas-filled ballonets inside is from 15 to 17, of which 5 to 7 may be hit by bullets and emptied of their gas without destroying the buoyancy of the whole.

THE ZEPPELIN IN WAR

For military service a Zeppelin may be armed with one or two machine guns, with one or two light rapid-fire guns, and with machinery for dropping bombs. It can carry about a ton and a half of ammunition and explosives. It is fitted out with a wireless telegraph apparatus with a radius of about two hundred miles.

The Zeppelin air cruiser is well suited for its purpose. While its speed is somewhat less than that of aeroplanes, it can rise very much more quickly. Its main advantage lies in its great radius of action, which enables it to make long scouting flights. Even in cases when it has been brought down by the enemy, the results of its expedition are not lost because of its wireless communication.

In the hulls a number of officers are conveniently and safely carried to make observations, take photographs, and plot maps.

German military authorities express satisfaction with the efficiency of the Zeppelins in the present European war. They have done successful scouting and have certainly inspired the Allies with fear. Some of them are built so that they can be propelled on the surface of the water. The Zeppelin Hensa has successfully descended from the air to the surface of the water and risen again, and great sheds, or hangars, are maintained at Cuxhaven and Heligoland as a basis for both seagoing and land-scouting Zeppelins. At the beginning of the war Germany possessed ten or twelve war Zeppelins ready for active service in her army and navy. There are two great yards for building air-ships at Friedrichshaven and Potsdam, in each of which five dirigibles can be under construction at the same time. It takes from two to three months under present circumstances to build a Zeppelin, and before long Germany will have fifty such air-vessels at her command. While Germany has given her attention chiefly to the development and building of dirigibles of the Zeppelin type, she has not wholly neglected the construction and use of aeroplanes, and many monoplanes and biplanes are employed for scouting duties by the different German armies, each of which has its own *Flieger Corps*. But the building of flying-machines or aeroplanes, as contrasted with the dirigibles, is believed by the Germans to be still in its infancy.

DISSENSION IN MEXICO

The confused and uncertain state of affairs in Mexico continued last week. General Carranza's resignation, offered to the congress or convention of military leaders at Mexico City, was a mere formality, not to say a stage-play, and, of course, was immediately

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refused. Villa's faction was not represented. Attempts are still going on as we write to bring the two Constitutionalist leaders into harmony, and their representatives have planned a conference at Aguas Calientes. The prospect is not hopeful, as Villa insists that neither Carranza nor any other military leader shall become Provisional President.

At the Mexico City conference Carranza proposed a programme of reforms for Mexico which is thus summarized in the press reports:

Assurance of municipal liberty; division of national lands and of lands which the Government may purchase from large holders; expropriation of lands in the vicinity of municipalities of five hundred population or more, the proceeds to be used in erecting schools, markets, and court-houses; obliging all large business interests to pay weekly and in coin all their employees; limitation of hours of labor and of Sunday work; workmen's compensation laws for injuries; just taxation of land; tariff laws intended to help the poorer classes; importation of necessaries such as the country does not cultivate, and reformation of banking laws to permit the establishment of State banks; marriage to be made a civil contract; divorce laws; betterment of the working classes.

This is apparently a good programme in itself, speaking generally, although it must be remembered that all Mexican party leaders, including even Huerta, have been profuse in paper promises for reforms. We note particularly as a promising sign that Carranza proposes purchase and expropriation (by something approaching our condemnation proceedings when land is taken for public purposes) instead of the outright confiscation of land which the opponents of the Constitutionalists have declared would follow the success of that party.

WISCONSIN POLITICS

In an editorial on politics in the Central West published in The Outlook of September 9 the statement was made that the Wisconsin Democrats had chosen as their candidate for Governor John A. Aylward, progressive Democrat, in preference to his conservative opponent, Judge John C. Karel. In this statement The Outlook was mistaken. The Wisconsin primaries were held on September 1, and on September 2, the day on which the number of The Outlook containing the editorial in question went to press, it was conceded by many political observers and newspaper editors that Karel had been defeated. A careful count of the complete returns, however, showed that he had been nominated by a comfortable margin.

This result may be taken as added confirmation of The Outlook's belief that the Presidential election of 1912, despite the admitted independence and the progressive tendencies of Mr. Wilson, resulted in a definite postponement of the day when American politics will be measurably free from the control of such men as Sullivan, Murphy, and Barnes.

THE FIGHT AGAINST NOISE

One of the unnecessary annoyances of the day is the production of noise by all kinds of mechanism. Each city has its particular noise. Tennyson long ago wrote of the "central roar" of London; in Paris the note is staccato, shrill, and penetrating; New York has a great combination of sounds which assail the ear from earth and air. In the country factories, locomotives, and motors make unnecessary nuisances of themselves. Nine-tenths of the noise made serves no good purpose. Factory whistles are not necessary; the ringing of bells and the blowing of the whistles of the locomotives is more than half an expression of individual inclination. Motors go shrieking along the roads and are often silent at the places where they ought to sound the signal of approach.

Those who live in suburban towns and who belong to the commuter class are the victims of both kinds of noises, and the New York "Evening Sun" has undertaken a useful work in the endeavor to secure both from railway officials and from passengers some expression of opinion as to how much noise is needed and what can be done to relieve its pressure. Years ago when the elevated roads were opened in New York City there were many suggestions in regard to possible ways of diminishing the noise made by the rushing trains. One correspondent of a newspaper proposed that the noise should be gathered during the day in large boxes and emptied down the harbor at night like other garbage. This was interesting, but hardly practicable.

WORKMEN'S COMPENSATION AND THE COURTS

In a recent issue of The Outlook an account was given of the democratic, efficient, and sympathetic way in which the New York

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Compensation Law is being applied by the Compensation Commission. Our attention has been called by a lawyer of standing to an error of statement in our account—an error which does not at all affect the main purpose of that account, but which is in itself of some importance. Careful examination of the Compensation Law confirms our correspondent's assertion that we were incorrect in stating that an injured employee who has made his claim for compensation through the Commission had still the right to take his case into the courts, and that a defeat at law would not prejudice him in applying to the Commission later. This is true only in the very limited number of cases (if there are any) where the employer fails to insure the payment of compensation for his injured employees under one of the four methods prescribed in the Act. Otherwise the payment of compensation through the Commission is the exclusive remedy of the employee. This applies not only to the New York law but to most compensation laws, and is a part of the purpose of such laws to simplify the procedure and to secure the compensation directly and easily.

There may be one or more compulsory compensation laws abroad or in other States which allow both remedies, but the authorities on this subject consider that to allow the workmen to attempt to collect damages in two ways is more than doubtful and undesirable. The theory of the Workmen's Compensation Law in New York as well as in other States is that it is a compromise arrangement—that is, the employer gives up his so-called common-law defenses of assumption of risk, contributory negligence, and the fellow-servant doctrine, and in return therefor the employee gives up all right of action at law. In fact, as our correspondent points out, one of the great merits of a compulsory compensation law, such as that of New York State, is that the great bulk of master and servant litigation which has taken up the time of the courts for years is eliminated.

One consequence of this elimination and of the human and direct methods of the Commission has been, as we have already pointed out, to spoil the wretched practice of the so-called "ambulance chasers"—unprincipled lawyers who instigate damage suits, often unjustly, practically blackmail the employers into paying, and appropriate to themselves a large part of the damages which the employee should have.

THE GERMAN PEOPLE AND THE WAR

Most Americans are loth to believe that the German armies that have overrun Belgium and have invaded France went forth two months ago at the bidding of the German people. They do not believe in Germany's cause, but they have always had reason to believe in Germany's people. They have therefore not wished to identify a cause which they believed unjustified with a people for whom they have nothing but friendship.

Many things have operated to establish friendly relationship between the people of the United States and the people of Germany. Not only are a large proportion of Americans themselves of German descent or German birth, but that German element in the American population has contributed distinctive qualities of character to the Nation. Historical tradition has also contributed to this feeling of friendliness, for the people of the United States have never been in conflict with the Germans, as they have with the French and the English and the Spanish, except as they fought the Hessian hirelings of the English King in the Revolutionary War; and, on the other hand, Baron Steuben in the Revolutionary War and the German regiments in the Civil War have helped to fight American battles. These are only some of the reasons why the American people wish to think well of the German people, and why at this time they have instinctively attributed the present war, not to the German people as a whole, but to the bureaucrats, the militarists, the Crown Prince, and the Kaiser.

The fact, which has been established by the testimony of Americans returning from Germany, that the German people were participating in the war with earnestness and with devotion to their Fatherland caused no surprise, for Americans well know that any people in the position in which the Germans have been placed would fight with the same spirit. The question which is not answered by American travelers who testify to the German war enthusiasm is, Who was responsible for placing the German people in that position? Most Americans believe that the responsibility rests upon the military oligarchy.

It is the non-military German whose point of view the American wishes to understand. This point of view is well presented by some striking testimony on behalf of Germany

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which we propose to consider in this article. This testimony comprises five separate things, namely:

Hugo Münsterberg's book, just published, entitled "The War and America." Professor Münsterberg is of Harvard. He is a friend of the Kaiser. He identifies himself with the believers in peace. He repudiates the doctrine of the Pan-Germanists.

A pamphlet entitled "Truth about Germany: Facts about the War." This appears under the auspices of an honorary committee, among whose members are Herr Ballin, Chairman of the Board of Directors of the Hamburg-American Line; Prince von Bülow, former Chancellor of Germany; Dr. Dryander, of Berlin; Professor von Harnack, of Berlin, famous Biblical scholar; Dr. Lamprecht, of Leipsic; Siegfried Wagner, the son of the great composer; Professor Wundt, famous as a psychologist; Baroness Speck von Sternburg, the widow of the late German Ambassador to the United States.

Prince Bernhard von Bülow's book entitled "Imperial Germany," which has appeared in an English translation and now has been published in French form. Prince von Bülow is not a warrior, though he is a great admirer of Bismarck, and believes that Germany has been forced into the arena of *Weltpolitik*.

Dr. Bernhard Dernburg, whose letters published in the New York "Sun" and the New York "Times" have been models of courteous argument.

A leaflet, addressed "To the Evangelical Christians Abroad," signed by thirty-one religious leaders of Germany, including Professors Eucken, Harnack, and Dryander.

All this testimony supports the belief that the German people are united with their rulers, and, with the exception of Prince von Bülow's book, which was written before the war, all agree that the German people are a unit in upholding the war. The pamphlet entitled "The Truth about Germany" explains that this must be so, because the German army "draws its strength and life-blood from all classes of the whole German folk," and therefore "can develop its entire strength only in a war which the folk approve."

In a summary of General von Bernhardi's book "Germany and the Next War" The Outlook has recently given to its readers the interpretation of Germany's spirit and purpose from the point of view of the Prussian war party. Dr. Münsterberg, Prince von Bülow, Dr. Dernburg, and the authors of the pamphlet and leaflet we have referred to undertake to interpret Germany's spirit and purpose from the point of view of non-military Germany. We shall give their interpretation as fairly as we can in the space available.

Germany is naturally peaceful. For forty-four years it has remained at peace with all other nations. During this time of peace Germany has made an enormous advance. In commerce it has progressed more rapidly than the greatest of commercial nations—Great Britain. In social progress it has set standards for the rest of the world by its laws for the economic advantage of the working people, by its development of agriculture, and by its administration of cities. In music its supremacy is generally recognized, and its contribution to all art is acknowledged by other nations. In science it is supreme. For such an advance as this peace is essential. Even a successful war would halt this progress and destroy much of what Germany has achieved. Every German has recognized that war would sweep Germany's commerce from the seas, arrest its industries, paralyze its efforts for science and art. Naturally, therefore, the Germans value peace.

But Germany is surrounded by enemies secretly plotting against her. On one side is Russia, nursing Pan-Slavic ambitions; on another side is France, cherishing revenge for 1870; and lying off her ports is England, jealous of her commercial progress. "Emperor and nation," says Professor Münsterberg, "are one in the knowledge that Germany is surrounded by peoples whose racial hatred would crush Germany to the ground if it could not fight at an instant's notice." "Let us consider the adversaries of Germany," says the "Truth about Germany." "Russia, the classic land of power and terrible exploitation of the people for the benefit of a degenerated aristocracy. France, a type of a nation in which there is not even enough enterprise to increase the productiveness of the country. England, which has so long felt its glory vanishing, and in the meantime has remained far behind its younger rival in financial and economic equipment. One can easily imagine the feelings of these peoples when they observe the rapid and successful growth of Germany." The same idea of conspiracy against Germany is expressed by the writers of the letter "To the Evangelical Christians Abroad" when they say: "No

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scruple holds back our enemies where, in their opinion, there is a prospect, through our destruction, of seizing for themselves an economic advantage or an increase of power, a fragment of our motherland, our colonial possessions, or our trade."

Thus surrounded, Germany is compelled to keep her sword sharp and close at hand. It is the fear of her enemies conspiring against her that has made of every German a soldier and of her Emperor a War Lord. In fact, the very progress that she has made in the arts of peace gives added reason for her achievement in the art of war. Since she is the trustee for culture, she is bound to protect herself.

The real dualism, as Professor Münsterberg points out, is not between the Emperor or the war party and the nation, but between these two interests within every German life. "It is," says he, "the contrast between the ideal values and the earthly power and success, the contrast between cultural unfolding and practical efficiency, between the legacies of Goethe and of Bismarck." And he says of the Germans, "Their old traditions of a life devoted to idealistic culture conflict too strongly with the life yearning for powerful external civilization." Prince von Bülow exemplifies this dualism in his book. His main interest is in the agricultural and industrial development of Germany, but he declares that Germany must always be prepared for war. He writes of this conflict between the peaceful and the military interests of Germany with irritation.

It is because the people themselves feel that Germany must make her way against her foes that they trust their Kaiser and their military chiefs. "We have been forced to become a nation of soldiers," says the "Truth about Germany," "in order to be free. And we are bound to follow our Kaiser, because he symbolizes and represents the unity of our nation."

This feeling on the part of Germans is the result of a long process of education. They "have been brought up under the shadow of the feeling that revengeful neighbors were waiting for the hour to burn their villages and their towns." This dread every German has known from his childhood days. Professor Münsterberg testifies that his conscious life begins with a vivid image of Hussars returning from the Austro-Prussian War, that his first writing was a childish poem about war, and that when he was a student at Heidelberg there was no other talk "but the war which the French restlessness would force upon us." So the Germans have been brought up to exalt the Fatherland. To this end they have been taught to subordinate thought of self and to be willing to die—even glad to die—that Germany shall extend her influence. In all her people there has thus been latent what a correspondent of Professor Münsterberg praises as the *furor Teutonicus*, inspired by the ideas of "the great time which created the German Empire;" and every German has felt, as this same correspondent says, "that in this war the existence of Germany as a cultural world energy was at stake." The logical outcome of this is that the Germans, even in America, are roused to show what Professor Münsterberg calls "a crushing power of which the reckless torch-bearers of German hatred did not dream."

In this, however, Germany lays no blame upon her foes, for to each one of them she concedes the moral right to do what they have done to advance their interests if they can. It is put in this way by Professor Münsterberg:

> If two men love the same woman, neither of them is wrong, and yet only one can possess her. If two nations grow, there may be conflicting needs of expansion; both may need a strip of land, a harbor, an island, an outlet to the coast, if they are to develop their resources. Neither Russia nor Japan was in the wrong when their wholesome growth led them to mutual interference. No tribunal of the world can find in such cases a decision, because it is no question of right. Both parties are equally on moral ground, and the source of the conflict is only the scarcity of the available land, in sharp contrast to the unlimited goods which the individuals covet. Then strength alone can bring a final decision.

In other words, among nations there is only one law that really counts—the law of the jungle. This is avowed, be it remembered, by one who in another place repudiates the "fantastic dream of the so-called Pan-Germanists." This, however, is the essence of Pan-Germanism.

As a consequence, it is not surprising to find in these spokesmen for non-military Germany the same view of treaties and of other international obligations that we find in Bernhardi. The pamphlet "The Truth about Germany" acknowledges that the invasion of Belgium was a "breach of neutrality," but

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it defends that by saying that the German General Staff was obliged to force this passage in order to avoid the necessity of meeting the enemy on the most unfavorable ground, and that in the midst of arms the laws are silent. As a consequence, these defenders of Germany have no word for the advocacy of the keeping of treaties except "hypocrisy." Thus, Professor Münsterberg says that a neutrality treaty is not regarded as a contract, and that "it is nothing but sheer hypocrisy if the enemies of Germany, including the Anglophile portion of the American press, behave as if this had not been common knowledge the world over." It ought not, in view of this, to be surprising to find that in the letter "To the Evangelical Christians Abroad" religious leaders of Germany do not even consider the possibility of referring the charges against Servia to an international tribunal to ascertain whether they were true or not, but defend the action of Austria as "the justifiable vengeance for an abominable royal murder." It ought not even to be surprising to find that the non-military German is willing to say, as Professor Münsterberg says of atrocities, that everything that is not specifically forbidden in war is to be regarded as allowed.

This view of non-military Germany sets forth the substance of militarism; for militarism does not consist in the existence of a large army or a large navy, but in a system based upon faith in the military power as supreme over all other forms of power and military considerations as more weighty than all other considerations. If these five sources of information correctly interpret the view of the Kaiser's people, then the Pan-Germanism of Bernhardi is not the fantastic dream of a small group who have happened to get control, but a belief that has been wrought into the substance of the German masses. There is reason why this should be so. The man who has newly come into great wealth finds it difficult not to be governed by his desire to emulate his wealthy neighbors and by his fear for the safety of his possessions. Germany as a nation is young, and it has grown rich quickly. Its desire for a "place in the sun" and its suspicions of its neighbors are perhaps a natural product of its youth and its rapid rise. Moreover, Germany as an Empire was founded in aggressive warfare. It owes much of its material prosperity to its arms. We do not condemn the Germans for holding these views; but, though it still may remain true that the diplomatists who carried on the negotiations and the military who put their weight of influence on the side of war were short-sighted when they should have been wise, it is not fair to say of German leaders and princes who are, like the common soldiers, risking their lives at the front, that they are solely responsible for the attitude of mind that brought on the war if it is really an inheritance of the whole nation.

A German victory, therefore, would mean a victory for this idea of national conduct: that the self-interest of every nation is and ought to be supreme, that the clash of interests can be settled only by war, that in such a clash of interests treaties are of no account, and that the endeavor to regard such treaties as binding is hypocrisy. On the other hand, a victory for the Allies would mean the victory of the opposite idea: that in national matters, as in individual matters, not self-interest but duty is supreme, that the clash of interests between nations is therefore capable of submission to the reason of the nations, that the treaties should be regarded as enforceable, and that nations shall hereafter find the repudiation of such treaties costly.

THE PHILIPPINE BILL

The Philippine Bill now before Congress may be profitably compared with the previous effort of Representative Jones to settle (or unsettle) the policy of the United States on the Philippine question.

Two years ago Mr. Jones, who is still Chairman of the Committee on Insular Affairs, reported to Congress a bill the object of which was "to establish a qualified independent government for the Philippine Islands, and to fix the date when such qualified independence shall become absolute and complete." According to the terms of that bill, the probationary period after which the "Republic of the Philippines" was to be finally cut loose from American control was eight years. In that bill, even during the proposed probationary period, power was granted to the nascent republic to make treaties with foreign nations, subject to the approval of the United States, to appoint ambassadors and other public ministers, coin money, to make tariffs, and to regulate commerce with foreign nations.

As the minority report on the new Jones Bill,

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which has just been submitted to Congress, points out, Mr. Jones and his supporters now declare that during the two years that have elapsed since their first drastic bill was introduced "increasing evidence of the capacity of the Filipinos to manage their own affairs has been afforded." It is surprising, therefore, to find the present Jones Bill comparatively conservative both as regards its declaration of purpose and its provisions for governmental control of the Philippine Islands. The most radical feature of the new bill is the abolition of the Philippine Commission, which has (until the recent appointment of Governor-General Harrison) been under the direct control of an American majority, but which is now composed of five Filipinos and four Americans. The Philippine Commission, it will be remembered, holds the position of an upper house in the Philippine Government.

Not only does this new Jones Bill propose to substitute for the present Philippine Commission an elective native Senate, but it also proposes to grant to that Senate, in concert with the Philippine Assembly, control over all the expenses contracted by the Philippine Government, authority to reorganize the executive departments of the Philippine Government in any way it sees fit, and power to regulate (subject to the final veto of the American President) the whole of the public domain acquired by the United States from the Kingdom of Spain by the Treaty of Paris. These extensive powers, however, are granted to the Filipinos with a very definite string attached, for Congress reserves to itself the right to annul any law passed by the Philippine Legislature. The Governor-General, still to be appointed by the President, also possesses a limited veto power that can be overruled by a three-fourths vote of the two Filipino houses. The powers of the Governor-General are much like those possessed by the Governors of our own States or of the President himself in relation to the Nation. It can be seen from this brief summary of the changes which it is proposed to make in the present government of the Philippine Islands that responsibility has somewhat sobered the Congressmen who have been such bitter opponents of the Republican administration in the Philippines.

Apparently they, too, have seen something of the unwisdom of promising definite independence to the Philippines on any specified date—independence, the success or failure of which would be so vital both to the islands and to the United States. It may be asked, however, Is the independence they do indefinitely promise founded upon a just conception of the facts or of American ideals?

In the preamble to the present Jones Bill are the following clauses:

Whereas, it is, as it has always been, the purpose of the people of the United States to withdraw their sovereignty over the Philippine Islands and to recognize their independence as soon as a stable government can be established therein; and

Whereas, for the speedy accomplishment of such purpose it is desirable to place in the hands of the people of the Philippines as large a control of their domestic affairs as can be given them, without in the meantime impairing the exercise of the rights of sovereignty by the people of the United States, in order that by the use and exercise of popular franchise and governmental powers they may be the better prepared to fully assume the responsibilities and enjoy all the privileges of complete independence; therefore— [Here follows the body of the bill.]

In this preamble there are two statements which can be used as illustrations of the difference of opinion which exists between the followers of Mr. Jones and those who, like ex-Governor Forbes, Mr. Dean C. Worcester, and ex-President Taft, are spokesmen for the Philippine policy with which The Outlook has always been in sympathy.

The statements to which we refer are the promise to recognize Philippine independence as soon as a *stable* government can be established in the islands, and the promise inferentially contained in the final clause of the preamble regarding the method by which the Filipino people shall be prepared for independence.

Mr. Jones's definition of what a stable government is differs widely from The Outlook's understanding of the situation. Perhaps The Outlook's position can be best stated by a quotation from a report made by Mr. Taft when Secretary of War to President Roosevelt in 1907:

What should be emphasized in the statement of our National policy is that we wish to prepare the Filipinos for *popular* self-government. This is plain from Mr. McKinley's letter of instructions and all of his utterances. It was not at all within his purpose or that of the Congress which made his letter part of the law of the land that we were merely to await the organization

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of a Philippine oligarchy or aristocracy competent to administer government and then turn the islands over to it. On the contrary, it is plain, from all of Mr. McKinley's utterances and your own, in interpretation of our National purpose, that we are the trustees and guardians of the whole Filipino people, and peculiarly of the ignorant masses, and that our trust is not discharged until those masses are given education sufficient to know their civil rights and maintain them against a more powerful class and safely to exercise the political franchise.

Secretary Taft's opinion in 1907 is the opinion of The Outlook in 1914. It is not so much a "stable" government that it has been the object of the United States to create, as a genuine popular government. The Outlook does not believe that the Filipino people can be helped or served in any way by the general terms of such a preamble as Mr. Jones has written into the present Philippine Bill. The promise, indefinite as it is, of independence upon the creation of a "stable" native government furnishes fitter material for agitation than legislation. Moreover, when there is established in the Philippines a government that is popular as well as stable there is no certainty that the Filipinos will wish the sovereignty of the United States withdrawn and independence forced upon them. Why, then, pledge the United States to such a course now? In reference to the final clause of this preamble, there is, too, grave doubt—doubt which direct information from the Philippines does not dissipate—whether the rapid transference of the Philippine government from American to native control, in the way which Representative Jones believes eminently desirable, will not in itself do much to defeat the purpose of such an action. It is not so much the intelligence of the few Filipino leaders that requires stimulation to make popular government in the Philippine Islands successful, as the education of the masses of Filipinos in those principles of self-government which, after several centuries of effort, our own race has not too completely mastered. A too rapid transference of governmental functions from American to Filipino control may possibly make for the speedy creation of a "stable" native government, but it may also serve to rivet upon the islands an aristocracy of wealth and privilege destined ultimately to defeat the idealistic purpose to which the United States has given such thought and sacrifice.

It is also a very pertinent question to ask whether at this time, when international relations are so strained and difficult, there is any wisdom to be found in unsettling the status of the United States in the Far East.

HOW TO DEVELOP TRADE WITH SOUTH AMERICA

In The Outlook for this week there appears an interesting and informing paper by Mr. Robert Bacon upon the people of South America and the social and economic conditions under which they live. Mr. Bacon's impressions are the result of personal observation, and his article is timely because of the widespread discussion of America's present commercial opportunities in Latin America.

It is also timely to point out that these opportunities are not to be profitably grasped in unpreparedness, or without careful study and patient adaptability.

The tread of the vehicles used in the Southern and Southwestern States of our own country is four inches wider than that of similar vehicles used in the Northern States. The Southern theory is that a buggy or carriage with a wide tread rides more easily on a rough road than one with a narrow tread. This is true; but throughout the country the roads are so much better than they were fifty years ago that there is no longer any perceptible difference between the comfort of a vehicle with a broad tread and one with a narrow tread. Nevertheless the buggy manufacturer who attempted to sell narrow-tread buggies in the South would be unsuccessful, because the *ruts in the road have been worn to fit the broad tread and the people will not change their habits.*

This is the nub of the whole matter. Our American manufacturers have learned the prejudices and habits of the people in the different parts of the Union and give them what they want. Most of the sombreros worn on the plains of Texas are made in Philadelphia, and the felt-lined "arctics" of the Northwestern lumbermen are made in Providence, Rhode Island. The manufacturers of both these articles have become rich because they supplied what the people wanted, and did not attempt to give them something just as good or better which was not wanted. They saw the *ruts*, and made the goods to fit.

In dealing with South America the same policy is necessary. The goods offered must

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be adapted to the tastes, habits, and prejudices of people who for centuries have had standards of living, eating, and dressing that are different from our own. It is both useless and impertinent to attempt to impose other standards upon them. It is exceedingly difficult, if not impossible, to change the habits of a people, and if we are to supply the needs of South America we must give the people there what they want, and not what we think is best suited to their needs. We must learn to speak their language. Our salesmen must be in sympathy with their mental processes and institutions. They must adjust themselves to the siesta and the deliberateness with which business is conducted south of the Rio Grande and on the other side of the equator.

Then, too, there must be less American bumptiousness and condescension—only those who have traveled widely can realize how extremely offensive American boastfulness and self-sufficiency are to the Latin races, whose courtesy and culture have a genealogy much older than our own.

It is trite to say that if we are to build up an extensive trade with South America we must have the co-operation of North American banks and bankers, and persuade the people of South America to think financially in terms of the dollar rather than of the pound sterling. New York must become an international as well as a National clearing-house, and a market must be made in the United States for the obligations of South American governments as well as for the securities of South American corporations.

The Scripture might be paraphrased to fit the commercial exigencies of the twentieth century by saying that "where the credit is, there the heart is also." It is certain that people are going to buy their goods where they are trusted, and we cannot get the trade of South America unless we show our confidence in the future of that continent by a willingness to finance its development.

We can do all this without waiting for an American mercantile marine, desirable as that ultimately may be. With centuries of maritime experience behind them, the English people can provide ocean transportation more cheaply than we can. It may be economically expedient to let them do it until we can learn to do it at least as well. It is an age of specialization. Each nation should do the things that it can do most efficiently. If we can manufacture the goods, sell them, and provide the credit necessary to retain the trade, we may well be content for the present and let the English collect the freight. Moreover, in these days ships follow trade; trade does not necessarily follow artificially established ships. Perhaps one of the best ways to establish a merchant marine is to create trade with South America.

Finally, we must recollect that trade is essentially barter. We cannot sell to those from whom we do not buy, and if we are to deal largely with South America there must be reciprocal effort toward the removal of any tariff barriers that may exist between us and the people with whom we would trade. But, above all, we must not forget the *ruts* of national habits and customs, and we must build our vehicles of commerce to fit those ruts.

FOR KING AND COUNTRY

FROM A STAFF CORRESPONDENT

TO-DAY at Oxford I entered Balliol quadrangle. I saw a sight which I can never forget. That college is supposed to be the most intellectual of any here. It was long presided over by the great Jowett, the Vice-Chancellor of the University in my day.

To-day on the grassy plot surrounded by beautiful Gothic architecture—seemingly the serenest spot in Oxford—one no longer sees a don in cap and gown crossing from one side to another. Instead, there was a group of young men drilling so that they may become soldiers. What likely lads! As I attempted to cross the "quad" a sentry challenged me and said: "Very sorry, sir. Visits no longer permitted. College is under military rule."

In busy, noisy London it seems appropriate that there should be numerous recruiting stations and that drilling should be going on briskly. But here, in quiet, academic old Oxford! At first one does not get accustomed to it; but before long one begins to

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see that Oxford is peculiarly the place for the acquirement, not only of privates, but of officers, for the British army.

Indeed, as fine work has been done here in strengthening the army as anywhere. There has been a realization that the universities may be expected to produce officers rather than privates. Now the need of officers is especially great, and it will continue to be great as long as the war lasts. Hence a University Board was organized to deal actively with the situation. The Board is composed of the Vice-Chancellor (Dr. T. B. Strong, of Christ Church) and four other members. Three of these are also members of the Oxford University Officers' Training Corps—a permanent institution. The members have been sitting every day to interview and report upon any candidates for a commission, and have been in daily communication with the War Office in London. The Oxford University Officers' Training Corps has already done good work under peace conditions; and now, under war conditions, it is, with the Vice-Chancellor's approval, urging every able-bodied undergraduate to join it. Thus from time to time relays of men will be produced, qualified to receive a commission and to take part in the training of Lord Kitchener's successive new armies. Since the beginning of the war the Board has already nominated about twelve hundred men. Some thirty of them are destined for the Military School at Sandhurst, about fifty for commissions in the regular army, over two hundred for the special reserve, over four hundred for the Territorial forces, and between four and five hundred for Lord Kitchener's new army.

This number does not, of course, exhaust the number of university men who have now joined the army; some have enlisted, and some were already holding commissions in the Territorials when the war began.

Suggestions have been made to the Vice-Chancellor to close the University of Oxford entirely, and so turn all the men into the ranks of the new army now being enrolled. But the Vice-Chancellor contends that this would make an unappreciable difference to the recruiting now; and also that it would extinguish for good all hope of a succession of officers.

To show the enthusiasm among Oxford men, I would add the report of a special inquiry I made at Oriel College. Of one hundred and twenty-nine men in residence there last term, nearly one hundred have volunteered in some form or other; and of those who have not so volunteered, some are Rhodes Scholars who have already gone home, some are on the sick list, and some are in holy orders.

The scene in Balliol "quad" reminded me of a similar one the other day in Lincoln's Inn, London, that quiet oasis between Holborn and the Strand. Lincoln's Inn has always been associated in my mind only with young men quietly studying law and with older men as quietly administering it. But the splendid library and the long rows of chambers now look down on squads of lads drilling in the open. Some of them are already in khaki; others only in their shirt-sleeves.

In many other places in London drilling is in progress: on Somerset House Terrace, at the Horse Guards Parade, at the Knightsbridge, and at the Albany Barracks. In Tottenham Court Road, too—that symbol of the purely commercial and the non-military—there is one great mark of the uncommercial and the military, and, strange as it may seem, it is found in and about the massive and imposing Young Men's Christian Association Building. That building has become a great center for the Territorials—those volunteers who, in any event, go into camp every year. But especially this year!

You pass through Tottenham Court Road into Oxford Street and Regent Street. In many of the shop windows are such printed appeals as these, in large letters:

TO ARMS FOR KING AND COUNTRY!
YOUR COUNTRY NEEDS YOU!
LORD KITCHENER WANTS 100,000 MORE VOLUNTEERS.
JOIN THE ARMY TILL THE WAR IS OVER

And then, more rarely, such a pithy, appealing notice as this to any Britisher of backbone:

UP TILL NOW YOU HAVE LOOKED ON AT THE GAME. WE CALL UPON YOU TO PLAY IT NOW. FORWARDS WANTED! NO BACKS! PLAY UP!

And then, above all, this one:

COME NOW, DON'T HAVE TO BE FETCHED! THE PEOPLE WILL LOOK AFTER YOUR HOMES.

Just how any Englishman who believes in his country's cause can withstand this last appeal is beyond me.

Then there are other and rather more

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commercial appeals in the shop windows. In a Piccadilly cigar emporium there is this:

ALL TOBACCO AND CIGARS FOR THE CONTINENT ARE NOW DUTY FREE. REMEMBER OUR MEN AT THE FRONT.

And then there is still another kind of appeal:

YOU DON'T WANT US TO CLOSE UP BECAUSE OF THE WAR, DO YOU? TWO HUNDRED AND FIFTY EMPLOYEES ARE DEPENDENT FOR THEIR DAILY BREAD ON THIS ESTABLISHMENT. PATRONIZE US INSTEAD OF BUYING GOODS "MADE IN GERMANY."

But the recruiting's the thing. It is going bravely forward, and an additional fillip is given wherever a band is present outside the recruiting office playing patriotic airs. Several orchestras make a point of accompanying, without charge, the various contingents from the London Central Recruiting Depot in Great Scotland Yard to the railway station.

Yet with all the recruiting there comes to us who have been in Germany two pathetic convictions. The first is that these preparations are being made much too long after the war has begun. The second is that the preparations are meeting with inadequate response. Day before yesterday was London's largest recruiting day; four thousand men joined the ranks. But the total of recruits is small as compared with the two million volunteers in Germany.

Yesterday I had a talk with one of the great navy surgeons. He was much depressed on account of some of his patients, and said: "Remember that the severest burden of this war is going to be on our navy men. You might think it the other way because our navy is proportionately larger than our army. But the army man has greater certainty of what he is going to face. Every night, without any artificial light whatever to guide him, the English sailor must, in the blackness of darkness, cross seas in which he knows mines float, and these at any instant may blow him into eternity. Already three cases of hopeless insanity have come under my notice."

Now one would think that any realization of such facts as these would sober the whole English people. And so it has, as one picks out one individual after another. But, as one looks over the vast mass of men and women and sees them going about their usual avocations, and indulging in what seem their usual football and cricket and theaters, one does not quite get the notion that the whole nation is in sorrow. For instance, twenty-odd theaters advertise in the "Times" and "Telegraph," and doubtless double that number do not advertise. Yet in the list of plays mentioned by any of these theaters I have been unable to discover more than one of a very serious, soldier-like character, viz., "Drake," though the popular "Tommy Atkins" need not be forgotten. There ought to be twenty "Drakes." This condition may be contrasted with that in Munich, where all the best theaters were closed at the beginning of the war and only four of the smaller ones allowed to remain open. These, generally devoted to light comedy, gave only such very serious and soldier-like pieces as "Minna von Barnhelm" and "Wilhelm Tell."

The result of this war will be social as much as political. In Germany there will come a more ungrudging appreciation of what English social progress means. In England there will be a greater recognition of what has been accomplished in Germany, especially in the direction of self-respecting, so-called State Socialism. In both countries, especially in this, there must be a keener appreciation of military preparedness, organization, and discipline. And that means, not merely a clever plan and sticking to your plan. It means getting up very early in the morning to begin the plan. The lazy nation, like the lazy man, will be sent to the rear.

As to the causes of war, when certain facts become known praise and blame will be more evenly meted out. But, as one cannot now live in Germany without realizing that the people do not believe themselves engaged in other than a war of defense, so one cannot now live in England without realizing that the people believe themselves engaged in a conflict for the defense, not merely of their rights, but of the rights of the small neutrality-guaranteed nations.

In these aims the two peoples are animated by a sincere fervor and conviction.

ELBERT F. BALDWIN.

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A JOURNEY IN SOUTH AMERICA

BY ROBERT BACON

Mr. Bacon visited South America in the autumn of 1913 as the representative of the Carnegie Endowment for International Peace. Senator Elihu Root is the President of the Carnegie Endowment. In a letter of instructions which he wrote to Mr. Bacon previous to the latter's departure on his mission Mr. Root stated the specific objects of the Carnegie Endowment. From that letter we quote the following interesting paragraph:

You will observe that one of the means by which the Division of Intercourse and Education proposes to advance international good understanding is a series of international visits of representative men. Accordingly, under the auspices of the Division, directly or indirectly, Baron d'Estournelles de Constant, of France, the Baroness von Suttner, of Austria, and Professor Nitobe, of Japan, have already visited the United States, and President Eliot, of Harvard University, has visited India, China, and Japan, and Dr. Hamilton Wright Mabie is now in Japan. Your visit to South America comes in this category, but it has a more definite and specific purpose than any of the other visits which I have enumerated or which are contemplated under the head that I have mentioned, for it is not merely to strengthen good understanding by personal intercourse between a representative North American and representative South Americans, but it is also to introduce to representative South Americans personally the work and purposes and ideals of the endowment, and to invite our friends in South America to cordial and sympathetic union with us in promoting the great work of the trust.

In the following article Mr. Bacon, who was, our readers will remember, Secretary of State in Mr. Roosevelt's Administration and Ambassador to France in Mr. Taft's Administration, records some of the impressions resulting from his visit to the capitals of Brazil, Argentina, Uruguay, Chile, and Peru. Mr. Bacon's views of the future relations of the United States and the South American nations are of especial importance at this time. For the European war must inevitably bring South America and North America into closer relations.—THE EDITORS.

THE chief purpose of my visit to South America was to explain in detail the objects of the Carnegie Endowment at Washington, and to describe its working and some of the activities in which it is interested. Because the time at my disposal was very short it was possible to visit only five republics—Brazil, Argentina, Uruguay, Chile, and Peru—and I was able to stop only at the capitals of these nations, so that, in the main, the impressions here recorded were formed by experiences in these centers; but the journey took our party down a good part of the east coast, across the continent, and up most of the west coast, so that we were able to get a reasonably correct general idea of the country.

We gained our first impression of Brazil at Bahia, the third largest city in the Republic, and a principal mart for tobacco, sugar, cacao, and cotton, where on all sides were evidences of the energy that is transforming the capitals of these Brazilian states into modern cities. We were ashore for only a couple of hours, and our sightseeing was confined to a rapid motor trip through some of the main avenues, but the short stay was an inspiring introduction to the activity which we had heard was marking the development of Brazil. Streets were torn up, old houses were being demolished, new and imposing buildings were taking their places; street-car lines were being built or improved. Apparently expense was but little considered in the desire for improvement. Bahia is a revelation to travelers from northern climes, who are wont to regard the people of the tropics as lacking in energy and too content with an easy existence to suffer change.

RIO DE JANEIRO

Our first view of Rio was such as to stamp it forever on the memories of all of us. It is probable that no one can enter that wonderful harbor without receiving impressions which cannot be effaced, but it was our good fortune to pass through the narrow entrance just after sunset and to come to anchor in

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the circular bay when the myriad lights of the city were shining, outlining the broad arc of the shore and extending from the water's edge to the heights behind the city. A full moon revealed the high, dark mountains of curious shapes which encircled us, with the dome-like rock, the Sugar Loaf, which is beloved of every "Flumineuse," rising sheer from the deep waters only a few hundred yards away.

The natural beauty of Rio's surroundings is famous the world over. Probably no other capital in the world has such a picturesque site, and it is the highest tribute one could pay to say that the city is worthy of its setting. The broad boulevards, lined with palms and perfectly paved, the private and public palaces of characteristic and attractive architecture, the parks filled with tropical trees and plants, and the many large business buildings not only provide metropolitan beauty, but offer convincing proof of Rio's commercial importance.

The wonderful sanitary conditions of Rio are most striking, and it seems impossible that the city should once have been a lurking-place for deadly fevers. To-day the city is scrupulously clean; the streets are so well cared for that a torn-up thoroughfare is a rarity. Pestilential disease has disappeared, and the mortality rate is one of the lowest in the world.

The impression we all got, and which, I think, any one must receive in even the briefest visit, was of a city and country and people for whom the future is big with promise. The vastness of Brazil and its inestimable wealth stimulate the imagination to picture the development that must surely come when this great country is more thickly populated.

The Brazilians are energetic, patriotic, and keenly alive to their opportunities, and it was a source of the greatest possible satisfaction to us to hear them give expression freely to the sentiments of friendship they entertain for the United States.

IMPRESSIONS OF BUENOS AIRES

The journey by sea from Rio de Janeiro to Buenos Aires occupies four days. A few days before our visit the railway to the south had been opened, and it was possible to go as far as Montevideo overland, but we had previously made our plans to travel by sea, and embarked in one of the new ships of the Royal Mail Steam Packet Company, the Andes, a large and well-equipped vessel of the type which the growing trade and passenger traffic between Europe and South America has called into service.

The comparison of Buenos Aires with Paris is not an effort of the imagination nor the hyperbole of local pride, but suggests itself so naturally that it becomes unavoidable. I was conscious again and again during our stay of the illusion that we were really not in the Argentine but in France.

It is truly a wonderful city, substantial, important, beautiful, third in point of size on this hemisphere, nearly as large as Chicago, and rivaling that city in the rapidity of its growth. In the shopping centers one finds the bustle and life of a prosperous capital, and in the residential districts are splendid houses, nearly all of French architecture, indications of the wealth and cosmopolitan character of the inhabitants.

A day or two after our arrival, during a tour of the city, I saw some of the magnificent new avenues and parks of the capital. We inspected the extensive underground railway which was just being completed, and also went to the model municipal farm, and there had our first drink of *maté*, or Paraguayan tea, which, though scarcely known in Europe or in the United States, is a most important article of consumption in some of the Southern republics, Argentina alone having imported 43,161 tons of *maté* from Brazil in 1909.

The public schools of Buenos Aires are models of which any country might be proud, and have aroused the admiration of such distinguished observers as James Bryce and M. Clemenceau. It has been said that the Argentine spends, in proportion to the population, more money upon the education of her children than any other country in the world, with the exception of Australia; and one can easily believe that this is true if her schools generally have the excellence of those in Buenos Aires. It makes a visitor from the United States proud to be reminded of the fact that the great Sarmiento, the founder of the Argentine's educational system, was a close personal friend of Horace Mann and received his inspiration largely from that friendship.

In Argentina and in Chile English is spoken more generally than elsewhere on the South American continent, and we found that English was taught in the Argentine schools. It left an indelible impression upon

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me to hear the National anthem of the United States sung by the school-children, and to be greeted in my native tongue faultlessly by the girls and boys whom the others had selected to welcome me. Nothing, I think, could have touched me more deeply.

The large, active, and important newspapers of the Argentine are the marvels of the journalistic world, and, in fact, the newspapers throughout South America display a carefulness and accuracy not always found, unfortunately, in the papers of the United States, and try to interest their readers in the ideas of men rather than in their personalities.

So much has been said of the wonderful development of the Argentine Republic that my own testimony can add but little to our realization in the United States of Argentina's rapid progress and the important place it occupies among the nations. Its recent history affords many striking parallels to our own, and not a few of the problems which arise are the same as those with which we have had to deal or with which we are even now dealing. The immense natural resources of Argentina, which has an area of more than a million square miles, or about one-third that of the United States proper, the virility and industry of its people, the learning, ability, and patriotism of its public men, leave no doubt of the future greatness of the Republic.

Signs point unmistakably to increasing commerce between the Argentine and the United States, and, what is more important still, to our intimate intellectual relations. It is essential that a better understanding of each other by our two countries be brought about, and it is a happy augury for the future that in seeking this result we North Americans will be met more than half-way by those eminent Argentine leaders who are so largely responsible for the present advancement of their country.

MONTEVIDEO AND PROGRESSIVE URUGUAY

The Rio de la Plata at Buenos Aires is really an arm of the sea, so that Montevideo, although "just across the river" from the Argentine city, is distant one hundred and ten miles, and the journey between the two capitals occupies about nine hours.

Montevideo is a much smaller city than Buenos Aires, about one-third or one-fourth the size, but it possesses all the dignity of a large and important capital, together with the charm of individuality which smaller cities often retain. There are wide, well-paved, well-lighted avenues, lined with attractive buildings and many interesting shops. The city is well equipped with modern electric street railways. Public squares and parks of exceeding beauty add to the attractiveness of the place, to which many come from Buenos Aires during the hot months. Close by are delightful resorts on the sea which are within easy access of the city and afford pleasant places for outings for the Montevideans. To the west is the famous Cerro, a large cone-like hill, beloved by the people of the city, who often go there for the fine view to be obtained from its summit of the river and harbor with its moles and docks. The harbor, already an excellent one, although too small for the commerce of the port, is being extensively improved.

Some one has well described Montevideo as the American Hague, because of the many international conferences and congresses which are held there. A large number of these gatherings have in view the improvement of the present conditions of humanity. All that tends to uplift mankind, all that makes for progress in the march of civilization, finds a cordial support in progressive Uruguay. More than one historian has pointed out that the majority of leaders in the world's advance have come from the smaller nations. Uruguay, although the smallest in area of the South American republics, occupies a place of honor and consequence not dependent upon its size but upon the intelligence, advancement, and patriotism of its people. Although least in size of the nations of the southern continent, it is as large as all New England with a part of the State of New Jersey added, and, as has been said, has not an acre of unfertile soil throughout its length and breadth. Commercially, materially, it is growing rapidly, sharing in the great prosperity and progress that have come in recent years to these republics of the South.

ACROSS THE CONTINENT TO SANTIAGO DE CHILE

From Montevideo we returned to Buenos Aires, and then started across the continent. During all the first day we traveled in a straight line to the west through a prairie land of wonderful richness over which roamed great herds of cattle and horses. Seemingly boundless seas of wheat and alfalfa rolled away from us as far as the eye could reach.

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No one who has taken that journey across the pampas needs any further explanation of the prosperity that has so rapidly advanced the Argentine Republic to a leading place among the nations of the world.

We arrived at Mendoza, in the foothills of the Andes, soon after daybreak, and there changed to a special train on the narrow-gauge road that climbs, amid impressive mountain scenery, to a height of nearly 10,500 feet. During the ascent we caught a glimpse of Aconcagua, the highest mountain in the Western Hemisphere. Near the summit of the divide a tunnel has been cut through to the western slope, doing away with the mule-back journey of a few years ago. A good deal has been written of the hardships of this railway trip across the Andes, but none of our party experienced any discomfort. The descent on the Chilean side offers panoramas differing from those seen on the eastern slope of the Cordilleras. The mountains are less barren, and for that reason, perhaps, seemed to us less rugged, although the descent was more precipitous than the ascent had been. The gorges are narrower and deeper, and as the train winds its way downward there are entrancing views covering a wide range and showing a country of great fertility.

A change was made at Los Andes to the broad gauge again, and about half-past ten o'clock in the evening we arrived in the beautiful and picturesque city of Santiago.

Santiago is entirely distinctive in character. It possesses all the charm of an old Spanish city, but its progressive, enlightened citizens have added to this charm of antiquity the comforts and improvements of modern capitals. Its situation is superb. High mountains rise close at hand, inclosing the city in a frame of imposing proportions and exquisite coloring. In the clear atmosphere the mountains appear to be very near, but they give only the sense of protection without any oppressive feeling of restriction, of being shut in, such as one so often experiences in cities built near high mountains. The visitor, perhaps unconsciously, keeps ever in mind that longitudinal valley of incomparable richness and fertility in which Santiago lies, and which makes of this part of Chile a region which experienced travelers have regarded as one of the earth's most attractive garden spots.

It was an altogether pleasing and impressive glimpse that we got of the Chilean capital the morning after our arrival, a perfect October morning, with the comfortable sun shining from a deep-blue sky and a gentle but invigorating breeze blowing from the mountains. Such days, I am told, are a common experience in Santiago, where rarely does it become uncomfortably hot or uncomfortably cold. From the historic Cerro Santa Lucia we saw the city in panorama, a metropolis of half a million inhabitants, with wide, straight avenues, large public buildings of Spanish architecture, and statues and monuments worthy of the capital of a great and powerful nation.

While in Santiago we met many members of the old families who give to the society of the Chilean capital the cosmopolitan charm and culture for which it is noted throughout the world. It was at the houses of these friends that we were able to appreciate how thoroughly delightful residence must be in this favored part of America, where, in beautiful surroundings, with climatic conditions as nearly perfect, perhaps, as can be found anywhere, a civilization exists which combines old Castilian charm with the progress and virility of the New World.

BRIGHT FUTURE OF CHILE

The Republic of Chile is keeping pace with the progress made by the great republics of the east coast of South America. She has contended against difficulties considerably greater than those which have confronted her eastern sisters, for their closer proximity to Europe brought to them an earlier solution of the great South American problem of rail and water communication, upon which the development of every nation must largely depend. Traffic by sea between Chile and the countries of Europe has necessitated the long and arduous passage through the Magellan Straits or the difficult voyage around the Horn. Railway communication with the outside world has necessitated until recently the passage of the Andes on mule-back, a journey impossible during several months of the year. The tunnel joining the Chilean and Argentine ends of the Trans-Andean Railway, uniting a great transcontinental system of transportation, solved the land-traffic problem, and other trans-Andean railways are in contemplation or in actual course of construction which will greatly increase these facilities. The problem of communication by water will be solved by the Panama Canal.

Even a brief visit to Chile is sufficient

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to impress one with the belief that the present prosperity which it enjoys must rapidly increase. The natural conditions point convincingly to such a conclusion, and the Chileans themselves are such a progressive, determined people, united in their love for their beautiful country and the desire to promote its development, that the future of Chile seems very bright.

Ever since the birth of the Republic the welcome extended to foreigners has been in keeping with the hospitality for which the Spanish race is famed, and this has resulted in a broad, cosmopolitan spirit; but, though the Chileans make the stranger welcome, no prouder or more sensitive people exist. They are not arrogant, but they have a proper patriotic pride, and they are quick to resent any action or attitude which is not in keeping with their high sense of personal and national dignity. In the more intimate relations with our sister Republic which will be brought about by the opening of the Panama Canal it will be well for us to remember this.

ALONG THE WEST COAST

From Valparaiso to Callao, and from Callao on northward until the Guayaquil River is reached, the steamer is never out of sight of land. The course follows the straight line of the shore, usually hugging it so closely that the surf can be seen breaking at the foot of the arid mountains. The higher summits to the eastward have robbed the winds of their moisture by the time they reach the coast, so that from the deck of the steamer the traveler looks upon a region as bleak and often as weirdly fantastic in contour as the landscapes Doré painted to illustrate Dante's verse. League upon league of land destitute of all vegetation is passed; but, despite its barrenness, the prospect is made interesting by the vividness of the coloring. In the changing lights of morning, noon, and evening one may see displayed upon the peaks and in the valleys all the colors of the spectrum, from red to violet, with the striking exception of green, which lack the tossing sea in the foreground supplies. For two thousand miles or more the ship sails under the lee of these hot, desert mountains which need only the touch of water to convert them into hanging gardens of tropical luxuriance.

A heavy swell is constant, and at times causes the ship to roll uncomfortably, particularly when the vessel is at anchor; but, for the most part, the voyage along the western coast of South America, where storms are very rare, resembles a yachting cruise more than the ocean trip to which Atlantic travelers are accustomed. The Humboldt current, sweeping up from the Antarctic, keeps the journey toward the equator from becoming uncomfortably hot.

Sea birds, flying-fishes, and the larger inhabitants of the ocean, porpoises and whales, are companions of the voyage in sufficient numbers to divert the attention from the seemingly endless panorama of reddish mountain land. At times thousands of birds are to be seen in the air at once, and occasionally a guano island is passed that is literally covered with birds.

THE CAPITAL OF PERU

The harbor of Callao is an excellent one, but as yet the ships do not come alongside the piers. Only seven miles from Callao is Lima. The individual and picturesque character of the city and the romantic and brilliant part it has played in American history unite to make it irresistibly attractive to the visitor. There are many evidences of the modern spirit of progress in Lima. Wide streets, beautiful squares, crowded business thoroughfares, and delightful residential districts impress the visitor with the attractiveness of the city and its commercial importance. To many travelers the main point of interest in Lima, however, is the University of San Marcos, the oldest seat of learning on the American continent. It should fill any American with pride and reverence to enter the beautiful *patio* of the University, climb the ancient stone stairway to the wide verandas, and visit the great halls with the portraits of rectors of the University from the time of its foundation in 1551 looking down from the walls. Through centuries of great stress, through war and revolution and untold hardships, earnest teachers and students of San Marcos have kept brightly burning the first lamp of learning lighted in the New World.

Peru has had to contend against great difficulties. Her remoteness from Europe and from the United States has served to isolate her, but the day of this isolation has passed or is rapidly passing. In the extent and variety of her natural resources few nations of the world are so rich, and the time must soon come when these riches will bring to her people a new era of prosperity

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greater than any which they have enjoyed in the past.

SOME GENERAL IMPRESSIONS

In speaking or in thinking of the republics of South America we are exceedingly apt to fall into the error of regarding them as a whole. The ten separate states are as distinct as the separate countries of Europe; the peoples constituting them differ in race, habits, and ideals; their governments, though retaining the same basic form, are really often quite dissimilar. We shall never go very far toward improving our relations with the Latin-American republics, either in the matter of intellectual intercourse or of commerce, until we have made ourselves familiar with the separate nations, and by study or actual contact learn to make the necessary distinctions between them. A true understanding of our neighbors can come only with a knowledge of their separate histories, of their heroes, of the epics of valor and perseverance of each republic, and of the races, native and European, from which the people have sprung.

The day has gone by when a majority of these countries, laboriously building up a governmental structure under tremendous difficulties, were in constant fear of the danger of instability. Now all the more important republics are firmly established and no longer live in the shadow of dictatorships or unconstitutional rule. They "have passed," to use the words of Mr. Root, "out of the condition of militarism, out of the condition of revolution, into the condition of industrialism, into the paths of successful commerce, and are becoming great and powerful nations." With this development has come material progress and prosperity which attract the attention of the world to South America and assure its increasing greatness in the future.

Although error springs from regarding the South American nations as a whole, certain characteristics are, in greater or less degree, common to all of these peoples. They are hospitable, courteous, sensitive, proud, and intensely patriotic. Whoever goes among them with a disregard of these traits is sure to produce a bad impression upon them. We of northern climes are traditionally more brusque, and brusqueness is foreign and offensive to these descendants of the *hidalgas razas* of the Iberian Peninsula. Their sensitiveness causes them to resent criticism, although they accept most readily suggestions prompted by a sincere friendship; but an attitude of superiority, too often assumed by unthinking persons of other nations, can beget only their suspicion, distrust, and contempt.

Much has been said of the rivalry that exists between the various republics. It is only natural that the rapid progress made by nations lying so close to each other should produce a spirit of keen competition in their advance toward the common goal of greatness. The same spirit is evident in nearly every country in the world. The sentiments which exist between the several nations should be respected by all who deal with them, for in that way only can one escape giving offense by apparent partiality; but I incline to the belief that much loose talking by persons ignorant of the facts and a good deal of loose thinking by careless observers have grossly exaggerated the nature of this competitive spirit.

Upon the great questions that concern the welfare of the entire continent, upon matters that relate to the advancement of humanity in general, and upon the principles of right and progress, the peoples of South America, or at least those with whom I came in contact, are united. They are believers in high ideals, and in the work for these ideals they show a solidarity that rises far above any feeling of national rivalry.

In every country which I visited I found sentiments of warmest friendship for the United States. The reported occasional public expressions by agitators of South American distrust of our purposes and motives are practically negligible in comparison with the earnest desire for the friendliest relations of our countries which one hears expressed by the real leaders of opinion everywhere.

It behooves the people of this country, however, to conduct themselves toward their Latin-American neighbors with such consideration and fairness that no cause for suspicion may arise. For our conduct we cannot do better than to remember and follow the sentiments of John Quincy Adams expressed in a special Message to the House of Representatives, explaining his action in appointing delegates to the Conference held in Panama:

> The first and paramount principle upon which it was deemed wise and just to lay the corner-stone of all our future relations with them [our sister American republics] was disinterested-

(Continued on page following illustrations)

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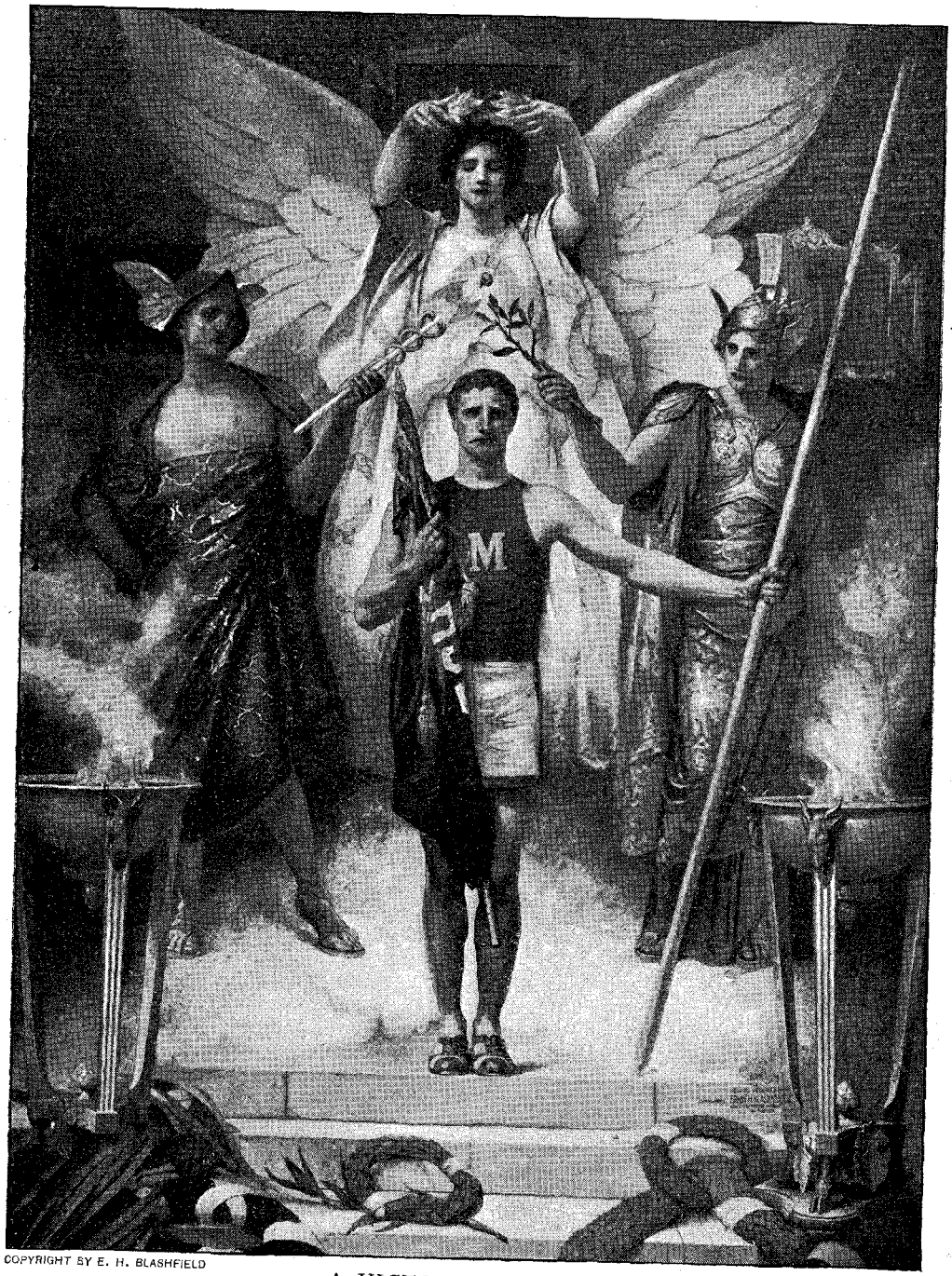
Current Events Pictorially Treated



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A VICTOR OF PEACE

This painting, by Mr. E. H. Blashfield, celebrating "The Victor" in the Olympian Games, has been placed in the new Gymnasium in the Mercersburg Academy at Mercersburg, Pennsylvania, through the generosity of Mr. Edward Bok. An ideal figure of an American athlete in the track-suit of the Academy is receiving the olive crown of the Olympiad. The Goddess Athene, the impersonation of wisdom and self-control, stands on one side, and Hermes, the god of music and athletic skill, on the other. The Olympian Games were held in honor of Hermes, and the tripods at the sides of the picture were dedicated to him at the Olympiad. A Mercersburg boy carried off one of the prizes at the Olympian Games three years ago

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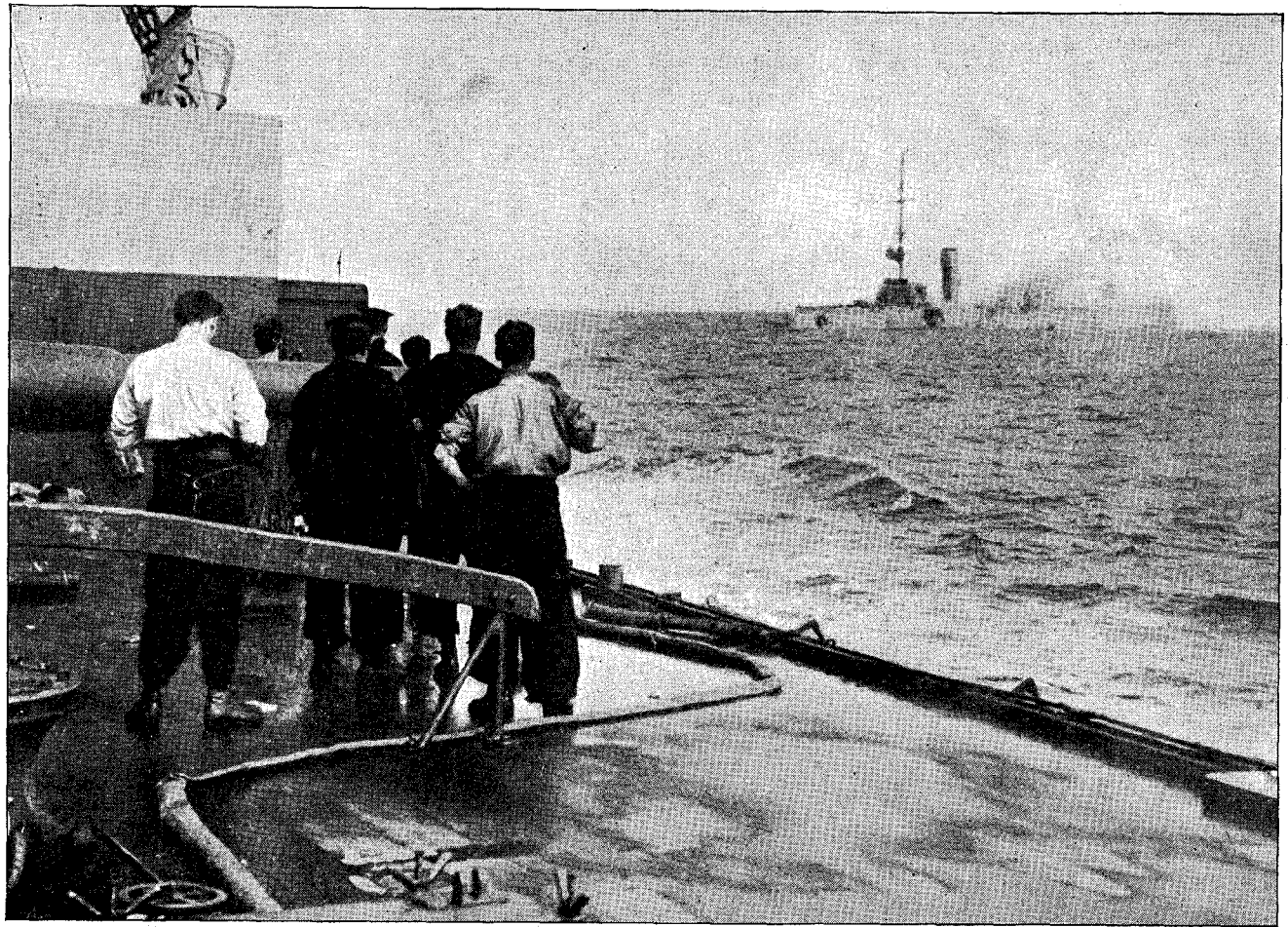

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SINKING OF THE GERMAN CRUISER MAINZ

This remarkable photograph was taken by an officer from the deck of a British battle-ship during the naval battle off Heligoland. One of the masts and two of the funnels of the Mainz have been shot away, and she is settling in the water

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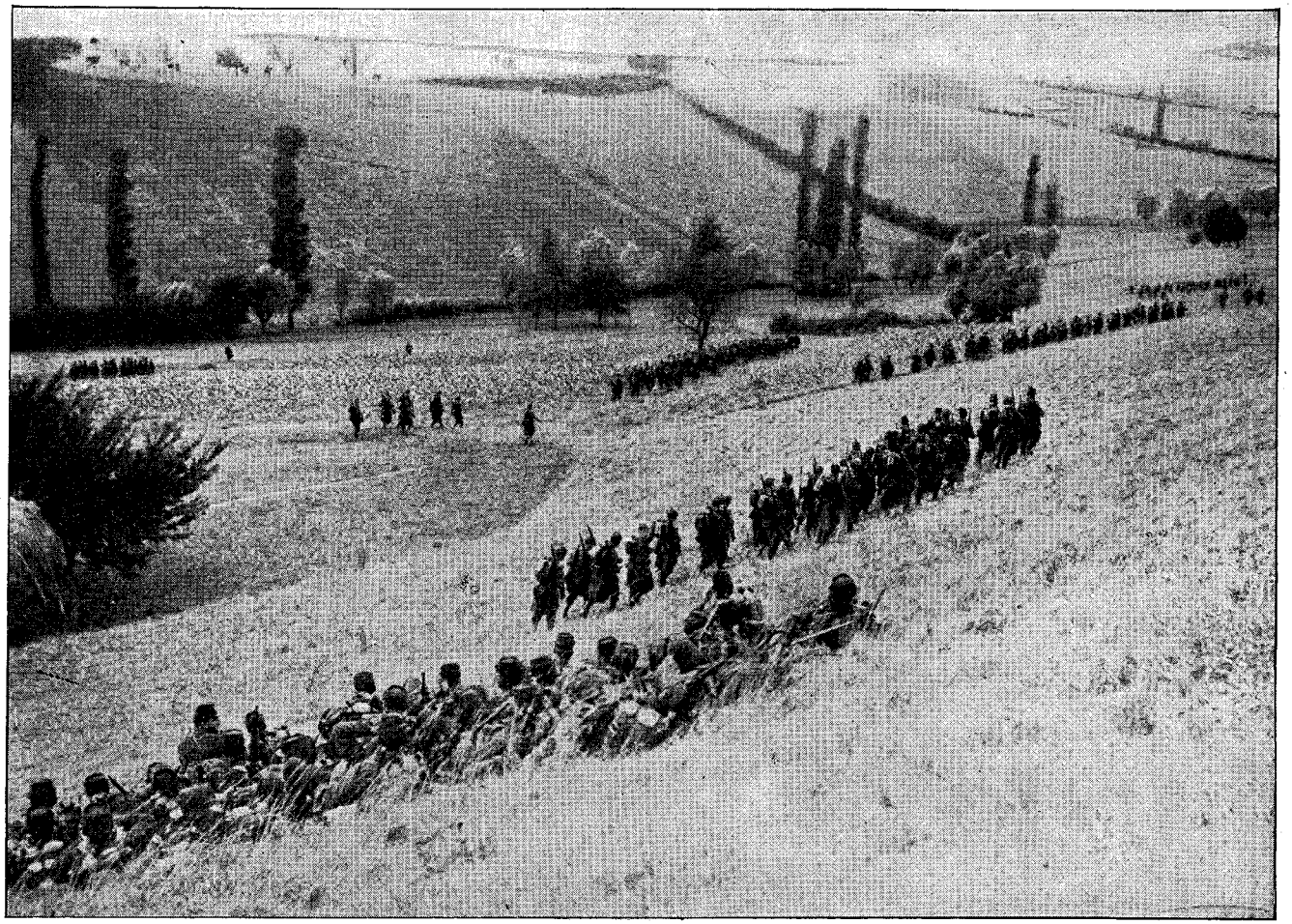

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FRENCH INFANTRY ATTACKING A POSITION IN THE VOSGES

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THE FRENCH MINISTER OF WAR, M. MILLERAND, AND HIS AIDES, AT BORDEAUX

The Minister has just received reports from the generals at the front, and, with his staff, is absorbed in studying them

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A TRIUMPHAL PROCESSION ESCORTING CAPTURED CANNON IN BERLIN

The first captured French cannon are said to have been received in Berlin on the anniversary of the Battle of Sedan

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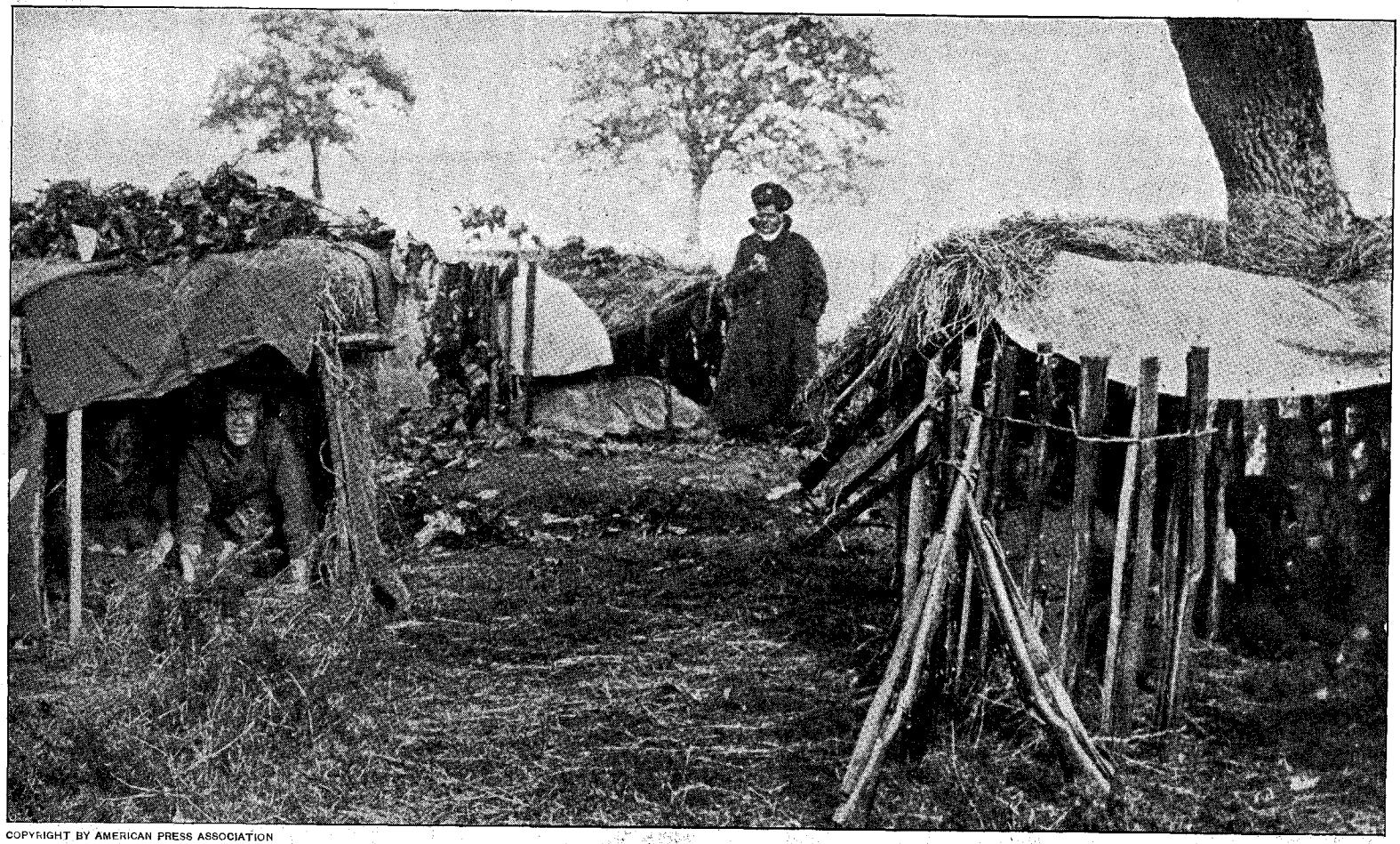

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BRITISH FORCES IN FRANCE PROTECT THEMSELVES FROM ENEMIES IN THE SKIES

The grass covering these shelter tents is intended to conceal them from aeroplane scouts

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SIR PERTAB SINGH | THE MAHARAJAH OF BIKANIR | THE MAHARAJAH OF PATIALA

EAST INDIAN RULERS WHO ARE TO FIGHT FOR THE ALLIES

Six Maharajahs are reported to have been selected to accompany the expeditionary force from India which will join the British army on the Continent. Three of these notables are pictured above. This is probably the first time in history that men of their race have measured swords with European soldiers in western Europe. Their participation in the war is a measure of India's firm place in the British Empire

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THE WAR AS SEEN BY AN ITALIAN HUMORIST

These post-cards, the product of the situation in which Italy, the inactive member of the Triple Alliance, finds herself, represent, in "The Song of the Siren" (Il Canto delle Sirene), the Czar of Russia and President Poincaré of France *singing* to King Victor of Italy, while to the right the Emperor William is anxiously awaiting the result of the song; in the other card, the two Kaisers, Franz Joseph and Wilhelm, to the left, try to drag King Victor of Italy one way, while the Czar of Russia and Poincaré to the right are equally insistent upon the Italian King's joining them. "Neither to the right nor to the left" is the caption

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ness; the next was cordial good will to them; the third was a claim of fair and equal reciprocity.

These sentiments, which served as the "corner-stone of all our future relations," are as applicable to-day as when they were written, nearly ninety years ago.

OBJECTS OF THE VISIT

Broadly, the object of my visit to South America as the representative of the Carnegie Endowment was in the interest of international law. The specific purposes included the organization of national societies of international law to be affiliated with the American Institute of International Law, of which Mr. Root is the Honorary President, and which was founded in 1912 by Dr. James Brown Scott, of Washington, and Señor Alejandro Alvarez, of Chile, Counselor of the Department of State of that Republic; to form national societies of International Conciliation to be affiliated with the organizations in Paris and New York; to arrange for permanent exchanges of professors and students of South American and North American universities; and to prepare the way for interchanges of visits between representative men of the principal countries of Latin America and of this country.

In endeavoring to accomplish these objects, which contemplate a better understanding between our countries, built upon the practical, scientific principles of international law and the fuller knowledge by the several nations of each other, the leading citizens of every country which I visited gave me their cordial co-operation. In Brazil, Argentina, Uruguay, Chile, and Peru the governments and prominent individuals in private life demonstrated in every possible way their earnest desire to help in bringing about closer intellectual relations between their countries and our own. Their sentiments of good will so repeatedly expressed offer the brightest promise for our future friendship.

THE SPIRITUAL UPLIFT IN RUSSIA

BY GEORGE KENNAN

STAFF CORRESPONDENT OF THE OUTLOOK

ON the 31st of July last, the day when Germany sent her ultimatum to Russia, I ventured to predict that the Czar would be enthusiastically supported by his people, and that the war which then seemed to be impending would be "more truly popular than any war in which Russia has been engaged since 1877–8". (The Outlook, August 15, 1914). The prediction has been more than fulfilled.

The Germans, apparently, did not anticipate united action on the part of the Russian people. They knew that the country was torn by internal dissension; that the Jews, the Poles, and the Finns had been embittered by persecution; that the Duma had been crippled by repression, as well as by the reactionary attitude of the upper house; and that an overwhelming majority of the peasants were dissatisfied, irritated, and implacably hostile to bureaucratic rule. From these known facts the Germans seem to have drawn the conclusion that upon the outbreak of war the Russian malcontents would see an opportunity to harass, if not to overthrow, their hated Government, and that they would immediately renew the attack which they made upon it when it was engaged in the war with Japan in 1904–5. As a supposition or anticipation this seemed, perhaps, to be reasonable and plausible; but it was based upon a misconception of the Russian character, just as the expectation that rebellion in Ulster, South Africa, and India would weaken Great Britain was based upon a misconception of British, Dutch, and Indian character.

It is a psychological fact, observed and verified many times and in many different parts of the world, that the first effect of any great catastrophe or calamity is to break down barriers of prejudice or hostility and draw people more closely together. Such was notably the case after the earthquake in San Francisco, when the whole heterogeneous population of the city was not only brought together and unified but raised on the crest

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of a great moral and spiritual wave. In the stress of excitement and peril all men and women became brothers and sisters, and worked for and with one another as they had never worked before. A San Francisco correspondent who had been swept off his feet and carried away by the uplift of this great spiritual wave wrote me: "The last ten days have been the best of my life. I never expected to see the kingdom of heaven on earth, but I have lived to see it."

Any one who was intimately and sympathetically acquainted with Russia might have anticipated a spiritual uplift and unification there of precisely this kind. The Russians generally are much more emotional and mutually sympathetic than West Europeans or Americans; and upon the outbreak of a war in which they believed themselves to be right, and in which there was a menace to their national security, it was practically certain that they would forget their prejudices, drop their animosities, and all stand together. But the result surpassed expectation. Russian newspapers and letters which have just come to hand show that the spiritual uplift was so great and the unification so complete as to blend all races, nationalities, and political parties into one compact, homogeneous body of ardent Russian patriots. Not only did all the Russians stand together, but the Jews, the Poles, and the Finns stood beside them. At the war session of the Duma, when Socialists, revolutionists, Jewish Deputies, and Polish Deputies pledged themselves to support the Government, Milyukov, the advanced Constitutional Democrat, and Purishkevitch, the fanatical reactionist, established friendly relations and actually shook hands, although hardly a year before, when Milyukov was speaking from the tribune in the Duma, Purishkevitch shouted: "If I don't spit in your face, it is only because the distance from my seat to the tribune is too great."

This reconciliation was, to say the least, surprising; but it was no more extraordinary than the attitude taken by the Socialists, the social revolutionists, the politicals in prison, and even the exiles in Siberia. Prince Kropotkin, the veteran fighter for Russian freedom, became a supporter of the Czar, and Bourtsef, the leader of the Russian revolutionists in Paris, after issuing an appeal to all of his associates to stand by their Government, started for Russia to offer his services to the monarch against whom he had fought for twenty years. Assurances of loyal support came from the most unexpected quarters. Paul Shchegolef, the Russian historian, who was imprisoned only two years ago for editing the revolutionary journal "Builloe," wrote to a friend in Petrograd:

"All Russia regards the war as the people's war, and a war of liberation; and the army is fighting with intense enthusiasm because it is the most perfect representative assembly that Russia has yet known. Victory in this war is a guarantee of the advance of civilization and a complete liberation of its development from all fetters."

The well-known Russian novelist Leonid Andreyef, author of "The Seven Who Were Hanged," writes:

"Though I am opposed to war on principle and regard bloodshed with horror, I welcome this war with Germany as necessary. This is a war for the soul—for spiritual liberty. Germans are not murderers of the body, they are—to use a Russian expression—soul-killers. The reactionary tendencies of Russia have always been at once fostered and despised by Germany. If the Germans be defeated, Russia will, I am convinced, enter upon a path of broad political and social progress, on which the nation's heart has long been set."

Paul Vinogradoff, Professor of Jurisprudence in the University of Oxford, says:

"We are sure that the Czar will remember in the hour of victory the unstinted devotion and sacrifices of all the nationalities of his vast Empire. It is our firm conviction that the sad tale of reaction and oppression in Russia is at an end, and that our country will issue from this momentous crisis with the insight and strength required for the progressive and constructive statesmanship of which it stands in need. . . . I am struck by the insistence with which the Germans represent their cause in this world-wide struggle as the cause of civilization as opposed to Muscovite barbarism. But there are other standards of culture besides proficiency in research and aptitude for systematic work. The massacre of Louvain and the hideous brutality of the Germans as regards non-combatants—to mention only one or two of the appalling occurrences of these last weeks—have thrown a lurid light on the real character of twentieth-century German culture. 'By their fruits ye shall know them,' said our Lord, and the saying which he aimed at the scribes and Pharisees of his time is applicable to the proud votaries

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of German civilization to-day. As for Russia, a nation represented by Pushkin, Turgenieff, Tolstoy, and Dostoevsky in literature; by Kramskoy, Vereshchagin, Repine, Glinka, Mussorgsky, and Tchaikovsky in art; by Mendeleieff, Metchnikoff, and Pavloff in science; and by Kluchevsky and Solivieff in history, need not be ashamed to enter the lists in an international competition for the prizes of culture."

The feeling of the Russian Jews is thus expressed in a private letter from the Jewish author Dinesohn, in Warsaw:

"I remember the Turkish and Japanese wars, but I never saw anything like the general enthusiasm now prevailing. In synagogues I have seen our people weeping as they chanted prayers for victory and the speedy restoration of peace abroad and at home. If only our enemies could see this! Children in Jewish schools give for the wounded the coppers their mothers have given them to buy lunch with. This wave of enthusiasm is so astonishing that it fills me with great hopes of brighter days for our people, and that the Jewish blood shed in battle will not be shed in vain."

The Jewish lawyer Sliosberg, in Petrograd, adds: "In Homel, the scene of two pogroms, thirty-eight Jewish youths have volunteered for the army. Jewish students, despite their sufferings, are passionately eager to serve. All classes of Jews are full of burning enthusiasm for victory and the hope of progress."

Finally, a distinguished liberal of Petrograd writes to me personally:

"I do not think there can be any doubt of the final result—the crushing of Germany and the triumph of democracy all over the world, Russia included. I trust the Russian bureaucracy just as little as you do, but it is not from them that salvation will come. It must come from the people, who are far more ready for a social regeneration, and are better prepared for it, than are the Germans—the most undemocratic nation in the world. There is much talk on the German side about Russian barbarism; but when you consider the achievements of Russian culture, such talk is pure nonsense. And how dare the Germans speak about barbarism after what they have done in Belgium? The horrors there cannot be surpassed or even equaled. Englishmen have said to me personally, 'I hope the Cossacks will avenge the Belgians;' but to their astonishment I have always had to reply that it was impossible, for the simple reason that the Russian—peasant or soldier, Cossack or infantryman—cannot do such things, as it is not in his character. The occupation of towns in eastern Prussia by the Russians has been peaceful, and no acts of brutality are reported even by the Germans. Has any one ever heard of Russians cutting off the hands of young boys or killing women, as the Germans did in Belgium? And Louvain, Termonde, Dinant, and other towns sacked and pillaged! Yet, after committing these atrocities, the Germans have the impudence to accuse the Russians of barbarism! They forget that Prussia continued to exist in the nineteenth century thanks only to the magnanimity of Alexander I, who saved her from Napoleon. Many people now are sorry that he did so. As for Russia's regeneration, one can hardly doubt it. The reports that come from the country are simply wonderful! Think of the country's 'going dry,' and no vodka to be had—and this not by Government initiative, but by the free will of the people! The feeling and enthusiasm of the different nationalities are surprising even to Russians. The unity of the Russian Empire, as well as of the British, is alone worth fighting this great war for."

The word most frequently heard from Russians now when they try to describe the spiritual uplift and unification of the people is the word that my correspondent uses in the above quotation—"wonderful." And not the least wonderful of recent Russian phenomena is the sudden and complete abolition of drunkenness. For the first time in the history of mankind one-seventh part of the habitable globe has "gone dry," and 170,000,000 people have stopped drinking intoxicating liquor. In the excitement of the moment and the press of war news, this extraordinary fact has attracted little attention or has been overlooked altogether; but to me it seems far more "wonderful" than the rapid and victorious advance of the Russian armies into Austria. For many weeks the sale of vodka in Russia has been completely suspended, and the whole population has looked at the European situation through absolutely sober eyes. The closing of hundreds of thousands of liquor shops was at first merely a temporary war measure. The Government, through its monopoly of the drink traffic, controlled the whole vast machinery of production and distribution, and was able to put a stop to it in twenty-four

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hours. Why it decided to do this I do not know; but the object probably was to prevent disorder during the period of mobilization and concentration. That object was quickly attained; but the people, uplifted by the great wave of spiritual exaltation, almost took the reform into their own hands. The order to close the liquor shops throughout the Empire was welcomed by the press and the people with such enthusiastic approbation that the Government would hardly have dared to resume the sale of vodka even if it had wished to do so. The Czar wanted popular support, and the people wanted sobriety.

It would be too much, perhaps, to say that the Russians have become a temperate nation overnight, or in a few weeks; but certain it is that they are not drinking vodka now, and their attitude toward drunkenness since the outbreak of war has become so clear and unmistakable that the abolition of the vodka monopoly has practically been decided upon. And not only that. If the Russian newspapers are to be believed, the Czar and his advisers are seriously considering the question whether, at this favorable opportunity, it may not be possible to end the sale of vodka in Russia forever. Under the heading "The End of the Vodka Monopoly," the "Reitch" of Petrograd publishes a letter from the well-known journalist L. Lvoff, in which the latter gives the substance of an interview that he has had with an official whom he characterizes as "the highest possible authority." This official he quotes as follows:

"At the present moment the realization of the temperance plan has become obligatory. The short period of total prohibition has not only been brilliantly successful, has not only shown us a striking picture of improved social conditions, but has virtually bound us to carry on the reform and make the temporary measure a permanent system. The widespread and practically unanimous approval of prohibition by the press and the people makes possible now the realization of what has hitherto been only a dream. An overwhelming majority of the peasants—most of them vodka drinkers—not only regard the closing of the liquor shops with profound satisfaction, but look forward with fear and dread to the possible reopening of them. But they will not be reopened. In undertaking such a great work as the change from a 'budget of drunkenness' to a budget of sobriety, the Minister of Finance and his associates count on the sympathy and support of the whole population without exception." ("Reitch," September 6, 1914.)

Russia is often called the "land of unlimited possibilities," with the implication that the possibilities are only those of evil. The great spiritual awakening, however, which we now see there; the patriotic coming together of discordant elements; the new feeling of brotherhood which links Jews to Slavs and liberals to reactionists; and last, but not least, the spontaneous and universal welcoming of prohibition as a great national blessing for which everybody is ready, show that the "unlimited possibilities" are of good as well as evil. If the war should do nothing more than free Russia from the curse of vodka, it would be worth all that it can possibly cost in treasure and life; but may we not hope, with the liberals and the revolutionists, that in some way and at some near time it will also free the country from cruelty, oppression, and despotic rule?

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THE HISTORICAL ROOTS OF THE WAR

IV—THE NAPOLEONS

BY ALBERT BUSHNELL HART

PROFESSOR OF GOVERNMENT AT HARVARD UNIVERSITY

REPUTATION of Napoleon. One of the remarkable things about the European war is that it cannot be traced to the action of any single statesman or military personality. General Rennenkampf, the Russian, had some experience in the Japanese war in 1905, and in 1914 invaded Germany at the head of a million men. General Joffre, the Frenchman, has never before shared in a European war. General von Moltke, the German, up to date remains the nephew of his uncle. The only veteran experienced general officer is General Potnik, who has now commanded three victorious Servian armies. The only sovereign who takes the field himself is Emperor William, who, like his august grandfather William I, appears to recognize that he is the adviser of great soldiers and decides between their opinions, but does not invent tactics or determine upon campaigns. This is a genuinely international war, fought by peoples and not by individuals.

Most great wars have been conducted by commanders whose reputation earned for them the confidence and support of their armies; and by common consent of mankind the most desirable station which mortal man can expect to reach is that of a great general, victor in many campaigns. Rare is the man who comes out of a war like Abraham Lincoln, acknowledged head of a great people, without ever drawing a sword or himself firing a gun. Of all the great soldiers of history, the most renowned is Napoleon, who owed nothing to birth and little to accident. Alexander was a king's son; Cæsar made a reputation as a national statesman before he became a general; Napoleon Bonaparte came out of obscurity and expanded to a star of the first magnitude chiefly because of his unrivaled military instinct and his power to make other human beings carry out his single will.

Apparently even stars of the first magnitude pale during the lapse of years. There must still be a few living persons whose eyes actually beheld Napoleon. His campaigns are the text-book of great soldiers. He smashed Europe into fragments which have not yet taken complete shape again. He gave France a code and also a form of government which has in many points lasted to our own day. But in this crisis neither Germans nor Belgians stop to think of that mighty shade looking out from the battlefield of Waterloo and mournfully watching the Prussians as once more they march toward his beloved Paris.

After the fall of the French Empire in 1870, when the Germans who had attacked the armies of Napoleon III kept on fighting the armies of the Republic, Thiers, the French statesman, asked of Bismarck, "Against whom are you fighting now?" "Against Louis the XIVth," answered the German, meaning that they meant to regain Alsace and Lorraine, which had been taken by Louis XIV two centuries earlier. It would not be unfair to say that the invading armies now in France are fighting against Napoleon I, undoing his work, and sustaining a German Empire the formation of which he did his utmost to prevent.

The Young Napoleon. Everybody finds the life of Napoleon I a fascinating study. Writers and statesmen of great repute have mused upon him, described him, and yet failed to penetrate his character. One mistake has been to look upon him as a Frenchman, whereas he came of an Italian family, had an Italian name, and was born in the island of Corsica, which became French only a few months before his birth. Yet his training was French; he entered the army, as a gentleman's profession, but was an unknown and almost friendless young man till in 1792 as Colonel Bonaparte he was active in the recapture of Toulon from the English. From that time he was General Bonaparte, and in 1795 supported the only government that France then had against the mob of Paris. Next year he was sent to Italy as the easiest place to get rid of him; and in an independent command showed those qualities which raised him to be a conqueror and an emperor.

What made Napoleon was, first of all, the manner in which he identified himself with his soldiers. Happy the general whose

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troops dub him "Old Pap Thomas," or "Uncle Robert," or "the Little Corporal." To the very end of his career he exercised an amazing influence on soldiers of all kinds, from the boy conscript up to the marshals of France. In 1815, when he came back from Elba, Marshal Ney went out as the commander of a force which was to make his former Emperor a prisoner. At sight of Napoleon he melted like wax, supported him with all his gallant devotion, and later paid the penalty of death at the hands of a Bourbon firing squad.

Napoleon's Military Genius. The world was quite ready for a military genius because the old system of warfare had petrified. In all European governments commissions, and even the command of armies, went by favor. The drill and discipline which were the tools with which Frederick the Great fashioned his armies came to be looked upon as the main purpose of military service. All those approved and tested methods were trampled under his feet by the dashing young Frenchman. Quick movements, forced marches, unexpected massing of his troops, wonderful care in preparing materials and supplies, and then the attack like an arrow shot from a bow—those were the Napoleonic tactics. In full forty pitched battles of significance Napoleon came off victor in all but three or four, because he was incomparably the greatest soldier of his time.

So many armies were crushed, so many thousands of men annihilated, that Europe looked upon him as a kind of military monster; as unavoidable as a horde of Tartars; as sure of victory as Alexander; a flood that no human power could stop. Yet he was stopped at last, and it must never be forgotten by whom. The first great drawn battle in Napoleon's European wars was the conflict of Friedland in 1807, in which the Russians were his adversaries. The only European power which alone and without allies defeated Napoleon and shattered his army was Russia, in the campaign of 1812. Europe at last learned the lesson that a genius may be overthrown by a patient, unwearying pressure of numbers. That is why the Germans throw such masses of troops upon their adversaries; and it is not an agreeable reflection that geniuses come only once in a century, but the strongest battalions may appear in any war.

The Emperor Napoleon. It was hard to be beaten by this startling newcomer; it was still harder for Europe to reconcile itself to the creation of a first-class military dictatorship by a man who had, so to speak, no union card in the association of monarchs. The physical force controlled by Napoleon was as undeniable as that of an elephant that goes "musth" through the streets of Agra; you must keep out of the way or be crushed. But it was a fearful blow to the whole principle of legitimacy and government by divine right when Napoleon, in 1804, declared himself to be "Emperor of the French." To be sure, he was only following the example of Charlemagne, and Rudolph of Hapsburg, and Henry Tudor of England, and Hugh Capet of France, in founding a dynasty instead of ending one. The boast of his soldiers that "we are ancestors" seemed justified. He was not only a sovereign; he was the greatest and most powerful sovereign in the world, laying down the law to his unwilling royal brethren. He put on all the outward pomp and symbols of power. He crowned himself with the iron crown of Italy. He wore those magnificent bee-embroidered robes which have come down to us through David's pictures. He made a new aristocracy—barons, counts, and dukes—and gave them the revenues to maintain their state. He created marshals in heaps; he even ventured to make kings. To him are due the titles of the King of Saxony, King of Bavaria, and King of Wurtemberg, now borne by heads of states within the German Empire. He created kingdoms and set his brothers on their thrones—Louis, King of Holland; Joseph, King of Spain; Jerome, King of Westphalia and also ancestor of an eminent American family. This Emperor by the grace of the strongest battalions set up and put down those who only claimed to be kings by the grace of God.

Nothing but Napoleon's own lack of sense of proportion prevented him from carrying out his cherished plan of founding an imperial line. The Emperor of Austria gave him his daughter in marriage. The son of that union was called the King of Rome, a kind of imperial pun upon the proud title of King of the Romans, which was for ages borne by the head of the Holy Roman Empire. If Napoleon could become a king, anybody might call himself a king—a Karageorgeovitch in Servia or a Danish prince in Greece. In this dilemma the sovereigns of Europe behaved as did "Skull and Bones" of Yale in a similar fearful crisis, when two sophomores

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broke into their house and made themselves masters of their secrets. They were forthwith taken into Bones, as the quickest way of stopping the discussion.

Napoleon as an Administrator. In many ways Napoleon's military genius obscured his wonderful talents as a civil ruler. He never could have maintained himself had not the French people been persuaded that he looked after their interests. His finance was clear, prompt, and unavoidable—a great contrast from the anarchy of the treasury during the *ancien régime*, and from the exactions of the Revolutionary government. One reason for his success was that his army lived partly by plunder: wherever his arms extended he treated the countries occupied as conquered provinces which must pay him well for the privilege of being ruined. He revived the system of laying contributions upon cities, provinces, and kingdoms. He left behind him garrisons, such as those on the Baltic coasts of Prussia, which for years sucked the substance of the people. He even made conquered countries pay a tribute of men. In the Grand Army of 550,000 which marched into Russia in 1812, over 300,000 were Italians, Dutchmen, Germans, Poles. In Munich you may see to this day the monument set up to the 25,000 Bavarians who were eagerly furnished by the King of that time, a creature of Napoleon; it bears the enigmatic inscription, "They also died for their country."

France was lightly taxed for the luxury of war, and Napoleon greatly improved all the business conditions of the Empire. He pushed the boundaries of France to the Rhine, thus including the present Belgium and part of Holland. He was a marvelous builder of roads; to him is due the great Simplon Road, the first highway across the high Alps. While Great Britain heaped up a debt of two thousand million dollars, France hardly knew what a national debt meant.

Effect of Napoleon upon Germany. Napoleon was no philanthropist. He did not make war on Austria and Prussia in order to create a modern Germany, but he unwittingly prepared the way for that terrific force which is now let loose upon his own country. He found the Germans still tied up by their ancient and absurd governing system. His armies carried with them the French idea of "liberty"—*i. e.*, freedom from governmental restraint on individual action; and that notion quickly disposed of the remnants of serfdom west of Russia and north of Turkey. They also carried along their "equality," which is perhaps the greatest gain made by the French Revolution. It became the great legal principle of France, acknowledged even by Napoleon, that every subject of every country is by nature entitled to the same system of laws and courts as every other subject. The old feudal system of exemptions and privileges was swept away by the French Revolution, and Napoleon made no attempt to set it up again. He himself never dreamed of being subject to any law, national, moral, or international, but he gave no rights to his nobles to deprive other people of rights like their own.

That principle infiltrated into every German country, and once for all broke down the idea of absolute government. The people were still far from being allowed any share in their own government, but the law, once made, was the law for all. If Napoleon had thought of it, he would have reinvented and applied to himself the incident of the Potsdam miller who would not give up his mill to Frederick the Great because it was against the law to compel him to yield his property. That principle disposed of most of the old petty tyrannies of Germany. There were no more little states like Wurtzburg, which laid upon a few hundred thousand people the burden of putting up a palace on the model of Versailles.

Napoleon also taught Germany what it meant to exist without adequate governmental and military forces. The cruel tyranny of the French occupation led the Germans to the feeling that, after all, it was better to live under one government than to be torn to pieces under twenty-five. Above all, Napoleon furnished the Prussians with the magnificent asset of a burning national grievance. They were poor, they were feeble; they were crushed, because the Germans had no standing ground, no central point. They waited for a great statesman like Bismarck and a patriotic King like William I to point out a way by which they could draw the rest of Germany to them.

Napoleon the Little. After all, France paid dear for those twenty years of glory from 1795 to 1815. In the settlement of 1814–15 not a square foot of Napoleon's conquests was left to the revived Kingdom of France. In the last months of the war foreign enemies swarmed upon French soil and twice occupied Paris. Prussian wagons drew up alongside

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the Louvre and loaded up the pictures and statues which Napoleon had brought back as loot. France accepted the position of one of five European Great Powers, threw her military energy into the conquest of Algeria, and within forty years established three different republics.

The second republican outbreak, that of 1848, unconsciously played into the hands of the old Napoleonic spirit. The body of Napoleon had been brought back by the Bourbon royal government and was entombed in state in the Invalides.. His son, the poor little Duke of Reichstadt, had died apparently of sheer inability to be so obscure a son of so great a sire. A nephew, Louis Napoleon, was a wanderer, a dreamer, interesting to us because almost the first European to point out the immense importance of the Isthmus of Panama. His name made him President of the Republic; his own abilities prepared the way for a larger dignity; and a willingness to terrorize and murder his fellow-Frenchmen made it possible for him in 1852 to proclaim himself Napoleon III, Emperor of the French. Almost any Napoleon might have got that far, but none but Louis could have maintained himself for eighteen years in a country in which there is so much equality of social conditions.

Naturally he traded upon his great uncle's policy, set himself up as a military genius, and proved it by joining with Great Britain in the Crimean War of 1854, and thereby aiding to postpone till our day the inevitable break-up of the Turkish Empire. Naturally astute, and as little troubled by conscience or sense of honor as any of his family, Napoleon III was for years accepted at his own valuation as a great statesman. Bismarck, when Prussian Ambassador at Paris, was one of the few men who penetrated him; and Bismarck there laid the foundation of his future confidence that the Second Empire could be crushed in like an egg-shell by sufficient force applied from without.

In 1859 Napoleon III defeated Austria in North Italy, and, much to his surprise and chagrin, within a few months he saw a united Italy come into being as a result. His next adventure was the attempt to plant a colony in Mexico. The elder Napoleon had sold Louisiana to the United States rather than engage in that kind of enterprise. Napoleon the Less sacrificed thousands of troops and fatally injured his own prestige on the gambler's chance that the United States would be exhausted by the Civil War and in no condition to deal with him.

Whatever his spy system may have been, it did not bring home to him the knowledge that the Prussians were forging a military machine of astonishing power. Daudet in "Numa Roumestan" tells something of the hollowness of the Government of the Second Empire under Napoleon III when Numa, dazzled by an offer to give him a place of dignity under the Empire, sits down to accept, beginning his letter, "Old Republican that I am, I cannot *refuse*," etc. His wife looks over his shoulder, and in a few terse words convinces him that the Empire is upon the point of breaking up; whereupon he rewrites his letter: "Old Republican that I am, I cannot *accept*," etc. The Second Empire was sapped by its own excesses, its corruption, its arbitrariness, its lack of common sense.

Napoleonism in the Present Day. Everybody knows how lightly Napoleon III accepted the Prussian challenge in 1870, and how forty-five days from the French declaration of war his Imperial Majesty was a prisoner of the Prussians at Sedan. None of his family seems now to have the slightest chance of returning to the throne, but the influence of the Napoleonic ideas in war and in government can still be seen. Napoleon's prime military principle of swift and unexpected movements of troops, so as to mass a large force against a smaller one, is the axiom of modern strategy. There appears again in the present European war Napoleon's disposition to count anything allowable that will help the military movement. Napoleon captured the Duc d'Enghien in neutral territory and had him shot as a warning to those who might be plotting against him. Napoleon looked on non-combatants as at best incumbrances, and took little pains to protect them from his own victorious troops. Napoleon erased from the map small countries which interfered with his progress. A German professor of international law used to begin his lectures by saying that all international law ceased to be when Napoleon arrived, and was revived after his fall.

The Napoleonic idea of an empire which shall include many peoples of alien races and tongues has plagued the world for a century. When Napoleon conquered Italians and Germans, and made them French subjects against their will, he built a road along which the English, the Russians, the Austrians, and the people of the United

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States have trod. When Napoleon annexed the German districts west of the Rhine, he put an argument into the mouth of the Prussians, who annexed Lorraine sixty-six years later. The man who goes out with a hammer to smash his neighbor's windows will sooner or later hear the stones crashing through his own glass.

One lesson which Napoleon taught the world ought to bear fruit to-day. It was, that no man has enough genius and no country has enough military spirit to make it the permanent arbiter of Europe. Over the ruins of Napoleon's Empire was erected the Concert of Powers, which in an awkward and imperfect way stood for the maintenance of the present European boundaries. If Napoleon, though appealing to discontented peoples, was still not able to make any considerable part of Europe French in spirit, who else can compel any European people to take upon themselves a language and a political system which they detest? Upon the entrance wall of every magistrate's yamen in China was for ages pictured a fabulous beast which seemed to be greatly disturbed in his insides. The tale is simple; it was a dragon which got on very well until he undertook to eat the sun. The picture is a perpetual warning to Chinese statesmen not to take too much from the people; and the lesson can be read in other signs than Chinese characters.

FROM A PRISONER

*This article was sent to The Outlook by a prisoner awaiting trial in a county jail of New Jersey because, as he said, "I think it may at this time do some good and help to keep public thought in a channel into which it now seems inclined to turn with increased vigor—to wit, prison reform." The writer, recounting some of the usual grievances of the convict—bad food, unsanitary surroundings, etc.—says that these physical irritants are only slight effects of the main cause to the mind of the convict, the real trouble, according to the man in jail, springing from the inferior character of the men who superintend and manage our prisons and from the utter indifference of the mass of the public. In conclusion, our correspondent declares that the present method of treatment does more harm than good, and he advocates the individualistic system of handling prisoners which some of our more practical penologists, like Commissioner of Correction Davis, of New York City, are already putting into operation as rapidly as their means permit.—*THE EDITORS.

I HAVE been held in prison, awaiting trial, six weeks. I am finding that trivial incidents have a tendency to assume large proportions in my mind. My one great dread now is that my thought may, unconsciously, attune itself to the pettiness of the happenings which loom so large in the vacuum of monotony into which my fellows and I have been cast.

I am confined in what is, I believe, as prisons go, a model institution. But if I, possessing what is by many considered a more than ordinarily strong mind, so feel at the end of so short a period, what must be the mental condition of men of lesser brain power at the end of several years of similar confinement? And how terrible must be the degeneration of those who do not recognize their danger, and can thus make no conscious effort to combat it?

In our prisons society makes ample provision for the body, but practically none at all for the mind or morals of the prisoner—and I am not forgetting the occasional and largely mechanical religious services which are held at stated intervals in all penal institutions. Legal processes, in so far as gauging the prisoner's guilt and the appropriate length of time in which to hold his body in duress are concerned, are elaborate; but diagnostic consideration of the causes—of the mind from which sprung the impulses governing these—is totally, or almost entirely, lacking.

A majority of good people who appear to have a genuine interest in the sin-sick go no further in their endeavor than to try to see to it that prisoners are well fed, well worked, well sanitated, and well impressed with the error of their ways. Fear, so largely the motive power of old-time religion, is still

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held by many enlightened citizens to be the most effective instrument for reform of the mentally-morally diseased wards of society.

Yesterday I noticed a fellow-prisoner sitting beside the small table in his cell watching some object upon it with every evidence of great enjoyment on his face. I stepped into his quarters, and found that he was gazing at a struggling fly which had been lured into its predicament by the molasses smeared upon a piece of bread that formed part of my neighbor's dinner.

I was perhaps unjustifiably angered—at what I did not then stop to consider—and with difficulty repressed an inclination to speak harshly to the fellow. But without a word and as gently as I could I released the insect and carried it out to the sunshine of the adjoining gallery. Two legs were lost in the rescue, but in a moment or two the fly recovered itself and flitted away.

Of several things concerning the fly I am certain. One is that I could not in the least comprehend the processes of pain or terror or what sensation it experienced; another, that I had provided it with no insurance that it would not again succumb to other and similar temptation. Neither had I been able to implant within its tiny anatomy any influence that would counteract the propensity that had led it into the peril from which I had rescued it.

In my quiet night reflection the relation of the fly, the molasses, my friend, myself, to each other, to society, to the predicament of the several hundred other prisoners who share, albeit unwillingly, the hospitality of our county, slipped into my mind. The thing is too obvious to necessitate elucidation. But in this rambling through a series of little facts concerning imprisonment I may take occasion to use the fly as a lesson-pointer.

I have been much interested during several years, both as a writer and a student, in the many phases of activity on behalf of humanity classed under the term "Social Service." A phase of the treatment of prisoners which has hitherto escaped my attention, and I doubt not that of many others, is in regard to the class of men who actually come in contact with the prisoners—those who, in the last analysis, are responsible for the reform (?) or punitive measures which society has decreed shall be enforced. These men do the work ordered for society by the courts. The prisoners of society are in their hands for weal or woe. The judges, prosecutors, and juries perform their share of the task in the open—they are subject, and often amenable, to public criticism—as are the police who capture the prisoner. And all these are more or less trained for their work and chosen presumably—however low the standards of judgment may be—by reason of some special fitness for it.

But the wardens and keepers do their work behind stone walls—they are not exposed to the public eye or criticism.

Should political influence, or mere chance, govern the choice of men for so important a task and the exercise of such tremendous power over the destinies of other men? Should character—pronounced humanitarian instincts—play no part in the determination of their selection?

These men have, to make or mar, a majority of the men with whom they deal. They wield a greater and more absolute power over their imprisoned fellows than any other class of men in existence. This is one of the little-big factors in prison life that the public seldom considers.

There can be no question that under the present system, in the event of the animosity of a guard or keeper toward a long-term prisoner, he can and often does make that prisoner's life so great a hell that he can drive the unfortunate either into insanity or suicide. That such animosity is not only not unusual, but common, has been demonstrated times beyond number. If an autopsy were held by outside authorities over the corpse of every prison-dead convict, before the end of a year this country would be athrill with horror.

In a large majority of the prisons of the country inmates who have money are exploited. This practice commences in many police stations in which prisoners may purchase whisky, drugs, or other contrabands at exorbitant prices, and extends on up to the State's prisons in which men are urged to purchase cocaine, morphine, and opium as a means of forgetfulness.

Could anything be more hellish than temptation put in such a form and under such circumstances?

In many of these prisons almost unbelievably small tricks are resorted to by underkeepers to supplement their incomes. In practically all penal institutions smoking is either permitted or winked at. Under these circumstances, therefore, since all lights are usually electric, matches become a necessity.

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In some of these prisons inmates are not permitted to purchase boxes of matches, being supplied by the authorities with a certain limited number. The keepers then send around runners—trusty prisoners—who sell matches at exorbitant rates and supposedly secretly. Many of the so-called trusties are also used to peddle drugs in the same manner.

One of the most common forms of prison abuse lies in the handling and cooking of food. What one gets to eat plays a large part in the monotony of prison life. Of necessity, the fare is plain. But often through actual dishonesty and often again through carelessness this is sour and nearly unfit to eat. In many instances men are given just enough to enable them to live, and are made to suffer the continual pangs of hunger. In many other cases also those prisoners who are able to pay for their food are forced to pay prices far in advance of the prices charged in the ordinary restaurant.

In many prisons the coarse blankets provided go unchanged and unwashed from year to year—or until they are worn out; while in others men are allowed to wash their faces and hands only in the morning, being locked up at night with the grime and filth of their labor still upon them. In many institutions, also, it is the custom to toss to a prisoner clothes which have been worn, without the protection of underclothing, by another for many months, without any cleaning in the interim. Vessels used to convey food and drink to prisoners also are but carelessly cleansed. In view of the fact that a large proportion of habitual criminals are afflicted with venereal disease, the danger to those not already so affected may be readily understood.

Among the small things denied prisoners in many prisons may be reckoned those of writing freely to their friends, the receipt of newspapers, and the curtailment of the number of visits allowed. Here and there throughout the country there are far-sighted men who are coming to see that amusement, exercise, and mental recreation are as necessary to the prisoner as food and water if he is to be uplifted and helped to the strength to resist temptation when released. But these men are as yet lamentably in the minority.

The large majority of the small irritations which may make the life of the prisoners so miserable arise from the fact that the men who administer prison discipline are of the wrong caliber—they have not the vision that makes them fit leaders of the unfortunate. In this prison in which I am writing the officials are exceptional, but there is no doubt that in most prisons such functionaries are brutalized rather than humanized by their contact with society's derelicts.

I believe that society owes it to the convict to see to it that the men who hold arbitrary power over him are selected, not because they possess political and often venal "pull," but because they have the character and ideals of Christian manhood. There is no other standard that can assure certain justice in this phase of prison life.

Of course there is a fundamental cause behind our failures—a genetic reason for the downfall of each man confined in this and other prisons. Personally, I believe that it is due to a slipping away from, or never having been familiar with, the teachings of Jesus Christ.

Precisely! you exclaim; agreed about *us*. But, mark you, I do not mean that this applies so much to *us*, the criminals, or call us what you will, as to you—that section of you, at least, which is an atom of the organized social system which maintains the conditions that help, often, to put us behind the bars, and then refuses really to try to cure or reform us.

For you do not, you know, try to reform—you simply try to protect yourselves.

You palliate *your* offense with the sophistry that you are also protecting us against ourselves. But are you? What are you doing for our minds and souls? Are you not with us as I was with my fly, and just a little less kindly? And are you giving us any assurance that, our period of punishment over, we shall go forth with either the desire or the strength to retrieve the past?

Frankly, you are not. If we go forth and do better, it will be in spite of your system of alleged reform, which robs our minds of their keenness and vigor, our bodies of their sap, our hearts of their instinct to love and to hope.

Since my imprisonment I have read much of the writings of some of our more eminent criminologists, humanitarians, *et al.* They have made me very sad. How little, after all, in twenty centuries have we progressed toward the application of the principles of the one man who held the secret of cure for sin-sick humanity in his hands!

Almost as little as I understand the fly do the scientists understand the real needs of the

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sin-diseased. And the humanitarians, with the saving clause that they have begun right, since their hearts are engaged in the effort, are as far at sea.

A gentleman may spend a week in a prison cell and sleep and eat and work precisely as do a thousand or more of the actual prisoners surrounding him—again I must remind you of my fly. Can the humanitarian enter into the mental processes, the thoughts, the desires, of these other men? And he is chiefly concerned, is he not, with the physical things—those that, after all, matter least?

In my own section of the jail are eleven men, no two of them under indictment for a similar offense. And yet they, in common with the several hundred other men confined here, are to be treated, subject to their conviction, in precisely similar fashion—their bodies will be locked up. The only difference in treatment will consist in the length of their imprisonment. Of course society insists that they are all guilty of one thing—sin. But can society afford to overlook the fact that the impulse which led to the actual commission of this in each case sprang from a brain functioning in a different way? that the causes which led to the effect were of a varying nature?

As a thoughtful, observing man laboring under an indictment of society and yet trying to look at both sides of the question, I must, in my turn, hand in an indictment against those who have laid charges against my fellows and myself.

It is this: that even more alarming than the crimes of the criminal is the seemingly utter indifference on the part of society to the conditions which make so often for sin and disease, and carelessness to the need of the reform or cure of those afflicted.

Not only is society not making any headway in the cure of the sin-disease in those whom it apprehends—it is aggravating it, making it the more deadly and prevalent. The only hope, under the present method of treatment, is to kill each of the sin-diseased as quickly as possible.

And there will never be any real prevention or cure until society comes to see that it must adopt the individualistic form of treatment practiced and taught by Jesus Christ.

But in this touching upon some of the little-big things that affect the life of the prisoner, as I have visualized them during my brief experience, I have merely scratched the surface of a great need.

THE SPECTATOR

A LITTLE wood of fir and cedar, with paths and glades opening on a low, broad meadow which sloped to the narrow strip of water; a higher wooded ridge on one side, where white tents shone in the sun; a big bark, square-rigged, fluttering flags at every point, lying at anchor in full view; a high causeway and bridge behind, from which a tremendous grand stand descended to the meadow, crowded by thousands of people—all this showed that Cape Cod was ready to look into the "fairy mirror" of its pageant—that pageant of adventure, history, and romance which had been preparing for months to celebrate the new Canal.

A true Cape Cod stone wall separated the actors from the audience—a low, gray, rambling, picturesque, charming stone wall, piled up anyway, with cedars growing out of it here and there. One low clump of them formed an ideal shelter for the prompter, who sat there, invisible to the audience behind the wall, with megaphone, chart, and acting version spread out comfortably beside her. Slight, alert, competent, she summoned, marshaled, sustained, and dismissed the scenes, one after the other, apparently knowing every one among the hundreds of performers by name and town. For this pageant was by towns. Every town on the Cape had been visited months before, called in mass-meeting, its part chosen and allotted, its rehearsing done, its costume chests ransacked. "You ought to see the clothes the Hyannis people have in their attics!" confided the prompter (who was also the organizer-in-chief) to the Spectator before the pageant began. "And Sandwich—there are beautiful old costumes there. All these Cape Cod towns have treasures in them, for the seafarers brought home rare things, and the shipmasters were often rich. Wellfleet sent out many ships in its day, where now it has not one ship and its sailors go in alien ves-

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sels. The Cape is a fascinating place, and its people are a fine set."

They looked to be. Tall, grave-faced men, buxom matrons, pretty girls, sturdy children with sunburned hair, they went into the pageant seriously, it was evident. "But I can't get them to wear their costumes one moment longer than is necessary," said the prompter. "It's not like Quebec, where those in the tercentenary pageant kept their costumes on all the week, and even went to church in them." The Spectator remembered that marvelous scene on Dufferin Terrace every day, where Indians, voyageurs, French courtiers and marquises, and British grenadiers formed a brilliant, ever-changing throng of beauty and romance. Here on Cape Cod the dressing-tents among the fir trees were the beginning and the end of the costuming each day, and, though the pageant lasted four days, no costumed Indian or explorer or colonial belle or red-capped pirate ever strayed, apparently, outside the meadow. It would not be in the Cape Cod character to do it—one might know that.

The Spectator took a tentative stroll through the woods, for the orchestra had not yet entered the green-planked hole in the ground where they were to sit, a little to one side of the meadow. In the first glade horses were tethered to the trees, and two cannon of wood hooped with iron were stationed ready to be pulled forward. Barrels filled with ice-water, with cups hanging from nails driven at the top edges, were being patronized by a group of Boy Scouts. "I'd rather drink the middle of this water than the top!" remarked one, evidently accustomed to bubble fountains; and the Spectator agreed with him. "Huh! Call yourself a Boy Scout!" said another, of sterner stuff, and tossed down a draught. "Barnstable! where's Barnstable?" called the manager. "All Barnstable this way; we've changed the action a bit, and we must rehearse once more. Where's Barnstable?"

Barnstable, it turned out, was largely in the lunch-tent, eating fish-chowder, baked beans, and chicken pie to sustain it in the coming ordeal. As it didn't come along until the fifth "episode," it knew it had time, and disdained to hurry. But the blue sea-dancers of the first episode were ready and at the front, and the Quakers of Sandwich and Bartholomew Gosnold and his crew were stationing themselves on opposite sides, and it was time to get on the stand, for the orchestra were tuning up.

Yachting parties from the Canal, auto and trolley comers from everywhere, and passengers from Boston trains and Cape trains were crowding the seats in solid ranks, tier upon tier. There are plenty of places on Cape Cod to come from, such as the poet of the land has given in this memorable list:

"There's Quemquamoguisett and Monohansett,
Menanhant, Cotuit, Cataumet, and Gansett,
Tuckernuck, Sippican, then comes Cohasset,
Muskegat, Nantucket, Teaticket, Pocasset,
There's Titicut, Sankaty Head, Cotochesett,
Squibnocket, Satucket, and then Mattakeset,
Succanesset, Namasket, and then Coonemasset,
Mattapoisett and Mashpee and last of all Nausett.

We drove the Indians out of the land,
But a dire revenge these red men planned;
For they fastened a name to every nook,
And every boy with a spelling-book
Will have to toil till his hair turns gray
Before he can spell them the proper way."

Besides this, too, Cape Cod has largely populated New England, and from New England the continent—for the Mayflower landed first at Provincetown, and Plymouth is not far from the Canal. An "Old Home Week" on Cape Cod would not leave an inch of standing room, if all the descendants came. So the pageant had a sympathetic and tremendous audience—bleachers and grand stand alike. Out from the woods came sweeping the sea maidens, in blue, purple, and green, with white tossing scarfs. Six villages sent their quota to this episode, and very symbolic and beautiful were the rush of the sea, the appearance of the Cape—in the persons of other dancers, clad in sand color, kneeling together in increasing groups to form the geographical outline of the peninsula in a sort of living relief map—and the rising of the lighthouses, each a tall girl with a flashing light in her uplifted hand.

Bartholomew Gosnold—it was his ship, by the way, that was anchored in the Canal, as in 1602—came up with his men, carrying a fresh-caught cod, too rigid, however, to be real. It was talked over and despised, for furs were what the gallant Gosnold was after. Then it was cooked by two men over a fire of

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brushwood, while the rest plunged into the woods to explore the island, as they thought it. Coming back disillusioned, Gosnold dubbed the Cape "Cape Cod"—but at this point the audience applauded with all its might, not taking his mistaken view at all. The Pilgrims, who next came up from the beach, were better satisfied with the place. Their episode was graphic, and included the first wash-day on the Cape, the Indians' kettle of corn, and baby Peregrine White, the first white child born in New England.

The scenic value of the wood and meadow was great, though entirely primitive and unstudied. The acting was of the same order, not drilled to any great extent, but fitting the scene and the incidents. Notably the voices of the men were fine, deep-chested, and of carrying quality. Miles Standish and Governor Bradford were impressive figures. The next episode, of the persecution of the Quakers, was of a different kind and admirably carried out. The pompous Governor Prince, preceded by his marshal and the vindictive special officer who, with much sound and fury, impounded the heretic black cow, and the cow itself, which would not be dragged away by his utmost exertions, were very spirited and effective. Then there were the pirates who came to Bourne, the villagers trading with them without suspicion, and even helping them to recapture a prisoner who had escaped from their ships; and the protest of the Barnstable County Court against the tyranny of King George, and the fight of Falmouth against the British redcoats. Here the cannon came in, and the horses, and the orchestra played "The British Grenadier," and there was much burning of powder and falling of wounded. The women of Falmouth came out and helped the wounded from the field, bandaging in approved Red Cross style. "Only one died on 'em!" said one woman to another in the seats behind the Spectator—and the slaughter was indeed encouragingly small.

Peace followed, and remained. The day of the whaling ship, the stage-coach, and the post-rider was shown. "Twenty men from our town went to the whaling fleet last year," said the woman behind, "so that isn't over yet." "But they had to go somewhere else to ship," replied the other. "There's not a whaler sails from the Cape any more." The last episode, indeed, showed "The New Cape"—scientific agriculture, co-operative egg-marketing, fire-protection, Boy Scouts and Camp-Fire Girls, and, of course, the Canal, which Miles Standish first proposed, which was talked of in Revolutionary times, and is at last a realized dream. From the Spectator's seat, high on the stand, he could see the great top and arm of one of the giant dredges that has dug the magic way and made the Cape at last the island that Gosnold thought it to be. Lighthouse and life-saver will no more be the *motif* of the Cape's theme, for the days of hurricane and wreck at the outer tip are over with the short inside route from bay to bay.

THE NEW BOOKS

AN ENGLISH SOCIAL NOVELIST[1]

Five stories from Mr. Marshall's hand have been published in this country, and disclose his methods and the field of his interest and study of character. Sir Oliver Lodge has told us that, after looking at a group of stars in one of the nebulæ, Tennyson said, as he turned from the telescope, "How can I think much of the county families after this?" In the perspective of the solar system these families are not impressive, but in the English social system they are of great importance; they are perhaps the most distinctive feature of that system. Other countries have their nobility, but the county family is an English product. It presents the finest type of a permanent landholding class: a great group of people rooted in the soil by long ancestral possession, bound by hereditary ties to the neighborhood, but not bound by its narrow horizons; possessed of ample but not excessive means, and of a leisure which is rarely made an opportunity for idleness; lovers of sport, of farming, and of gardens, living in great houses enriched by generations of men and women with time for reading, for travel, and for laying both art and

[1] The Greatest of These. By Archibald Marshall. Dodd, Mead & Co., New York. $1.35.

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nature under contribution to enrich the ancestral home.

Families bred under conditions so favorable to independence of character, to healthful habits of life, and to the acceptance of community responsibilities are in the way of developing strong qualities, and the English county families have contributed a host of able men to the public service, and in politics, the army, the navy, and the Church have filled places of the greatest distinction; reinforced by the public schools and the universities, they have given England a fine type of men.

Of the five novels which Mr. Marshall has published in this country four have been studies of the county family, and the author of "Exton Manor" promises to do for this section of English society what Trollope did for the section which lives in cathedral closes or devotes itself to political life. Mr. Marshall writes as one to the manner born, with the simplicity that comes of intimacy with his subjects, and escapes any taint of social consciousness. He is a novelist, not a photographer, and, while he gives us a close study of manners, it is incidental to the portrayal of character. The ease and naturalness of his manner are very pleasant at a time when so many novels have a searchlight quality and seem to be written in an excited mood. Those who have become accustomed to the "two thrills to a page" type of story will find Mr. Marshall's quiet mood a little slow; but to those whose interest is still in normal life the quiet atmosphere of his stories will be as grateful and refreshing as the ripeness and beauty of English fields and gardens. There is no lack of agitating experience in his stories, but among people so bred to self-control there is very little melodrama.

Mr. Marshall has had a fortunate education for the work he has undertaken; the limitation of English country life has been its insularity, which has developed the spirit of caste and produced narrowness of view and lack of sympathy. The author of "Exton Manor" has escaped this influence in the lives of many of the men and women whom he describes. He was born in London, and in due time took up his residence in the Great Court of Trinity College, Cambridge—the college of Byron, Thackeray, Tennyson, Macaulay, and a long line of men of letters who read and talked and smoked and sometimes studied in the rooms that looked down on the Court. After leaving the University he went into his father's business, soon discovered that he had taken the wrong path, and made a trip to Australia, where he lived for a year. On his way home he came through the United States, visited in the Northwest, and liked the people and the country so well that he returned seven years ago and spent his time mainly in Cambridge with the visiting English coach of the Harvard crew. He found the atmosphere of America stimulating and its friendliness so cordial that he expresses a strong desire to come again; when he renews his acquaintance, it will be with a larger America so far as people are concerned, for the number of his readers on this side the Atlantic is steadily increasing. Although a painter of country and village life, Mr. Marshall is not village-minded; he has touched life at many points, and his training has been of the kind that clears a man's vision and puts him in vital contact with realities. After his brief adventure in business and his Australian journey he planned to study for orders in the Church of England, but his bent toward writing finally determined his career; his familiarity with clerical aims and habits and with the place and influence of the English Church in the country and in small towns have qualified him to make studies of clergymen as lifelike as the studies which have made Trollope in a special sense the social historian of the Established Church.

A story of undergraduate life, published in 1899, had a local success; "The House of Merrilees," which appeared six or seven years later, attracted attention in England; it was followed by "Richard Baldock." In this country Mr. Marshall was not known until "Exton Manor" made it clear seven years ago that a new novelist of serious aims and vital skill in the delineation of character had appeared. There was nothing amateurish about the novel; it bore the stamp of technical skill as well as of insight into character. It has been followed by "The Eldest Son," "The Squire's Daughter," and "The Honor of the Clintons"—stories complete in themselves, but dealing largely with a county family of a fine type as its characteristics are brought under the pressure of various experiences. The dignity, refinement, and vitality of tradition of the county family have never been more delightfully portrayed than in these studies of the English gentleman—the man who has never been in "trade;" whose ancestors have had wealth and leisure; who

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has had a public school and university training; who has been brought up to ride, to speak the truth, and to shoot straight, to recall the Persian training for boys. This type of man has played a great part in English life; he has constituted a ruling class, he has been conspicuous in a long line of Ministries, in Parliament, and at the bar. He has furnished the army with officers of all grades; he has been an ardent sportsman, a tireless traveler, and a successful colonist. The women of his family have been capable, practical, equal to the heaviest demands on their strength and devotion. Both men and women have been bred to love honor, to fear nothing but fear, to meet duty cheerfully, to do what is to be done with dogged determination and say as little as possible about it. Men and women molded by such influences as these have great qualities—courage, freedom from commercialism, a strong sense of public responsibility, and good manners. A distinguished American Ambassador of a very sturdy type once said that the British Government was a very pleasant one to deal with because it was a government of gentlemen. The limitations of this class are the limitations of the aristocratic type: lack of imagination, lack of intellectual flexibility, and lack of quick, broad human sympathies.

Mr. Marshall has written novels, not social studies; but because he is an artist he has conveyed the spirit and character of a class through their unconscious bearing, their habits, interests, and speech. The English landscape is charmingly sketched in his novels, not as a formal background, a bit of stage-setting, but as an element in the drama with which the actors stand in hereditary relations; which not only enfolds their homes and subdues them to its own tone of rich fertility and century-old loveliness, but imparts to the men and women who live in them qualities of nature and puts in them "the metal of their pastures."

And the actors know their parts and play them naturally without the aid of the prompter. They never get off the key, so to speak; they never speak or act out of character. They are vitally conceived and vitally portrayed. Mr. Marshall has both vigor and delicacy: he draws a strong personality like Squire Clinton in the earlier stories, a woman of exquisite refinement of nature like Lady Ruth and a man of rare religious insight and motives like Dr. Merrow in "The Greatest of All," with the same sureness of skill, the same sympathy of insight. The latest story strikes a deeper note than its predecessors, and, without any undue pressure of ethical purpose, has an invigorating quality. Sanity of feeling and a healthy attitude toward the moral aspects of life are distinct elements of strength in Mr. Marshall's equipment as a novelist. He knows the artistic value of reserve; he understands the significance of the reticence bred in the English-speaking peoples. He is not afraid to treat religious experience as a legitimate interest in a literary interpretation of life; and in this latest story he has given us different types of men under the influence of religious convictions, drawn with sympathetic insight and refinement of feeling. To do this to-day involves both courage and skill.

Mr. Marshall is still a young man, with tastes and habits which promise normal growth. He loves the country; has a passion for gardens; has lived in the New Forest—which furnished the background for "Exton Manor"—and on the coast; plays golf and the piano; walks a great deal, and is an inveterate reader of history, poetry, and fiction; writes out-of-doors when the weather permits, and is altogether a wholesome person who is likely to make good use of his talent and his time.

California. Painted by Sutton Palmer, Described by Mary Austin. The Macmillan Company, New York. $4.

There is an admirable combination here of subject, art, and authorship. No one of the volumes in this series has been furnished with color work so delicately painted and so beautifully printed. Mr. Palmer and the publishers are to be congratulated on being able to lay before the reader, for instance, such a lovely picture as "The Three Brothers" or "Sycamores." Mrs. Austin's skill in description and her power to bring out inner meanings American critics have long recognized. A finer holiday present to any one who has visited California it would be hard to name.

Greylake of Mallerby. By W. L. Cribb. Henry Holt & Co., New York. $1.35.

A new English novelist gives us here a delightful series of pictures or sketches of an old-fashioned English village as seen by a shrewdly observant young man from town. In character and humor the story is unusual; for structure and plot the author cares nothing and the reader little. The quality of the writing is choice, and

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one prefers it to the too numerous would-be melodramatic tales which strive for "punch" and "red-blooded" plot.

With the Flowers and Trees in California. By C. F. Saunders. McBride, Nast & Co., New York. $2.50.

No one who has felt the charm of California's marvelous and rich plant and tree life can fail to enjoy this informal, non-technical talk, or series of talks. The book is informative, and it is also readable. Its pictures include water-color sketches and photographs.

Maid of the Mist (The). By John Oxenham. The John Lane Company, New York. $1.30.

This is a capital tale of an English doctor and a maid wrecked separately, a century ago or more, on Sable Island, "the graveyard of ships." Possibility of rescue or escape there seems to be none, and the charming love romance between the two ends in a self-marriage entered into with solemnity and with what ceremony is possible. The record is duly made in a prayer-book found in an ancient wreck. A few years later the husband and wife with their two little children are rescued by a British Government exploring vessel. The marriage incident will recall that in Charles Reade's "Foul Play," in which a similarly stranded English clergyman debates whether he is authorized to marry himself.

Jenny Cartwright. By George Stevenson. The John Lane Company, New York. $1.25.

The author of "Topham's Folly" depicts a woman preacher, uneducated but blindly mystical; who as a child sees visions, who passes through shame and suffering, and who gives her life to save one who has oppressed and abused her. The book has power and passion; in its minor characters it also has humor and human kindliness in a marked degree. Its most trying defect to many readers will be the abrupt and matter-of-fact way with which incidents of almost unendurable horror are suddenly introduced.

New Clarion (The). By Will N. Harben. Harper & Brothers, New York. $1.35.

Mr. Harben has a field of his own and a constituency of his own. He deals with rural life in the Georgia mountains with uncompromising realism tempered by insight and humor. In "The New Clarion" he is at his best. The characters stand out very clearly. There is a vivid picture of genuine religion, and also of the kind of religion which makes men unconscious hypocrites and unrelenting fanatics. There is also a description of a rural community full of plain people who use very plain, elementary English, and who have mountain wisdom as well as rustic righteousness. The story of the resuscitation of a dying newspaper and the consummation of a very wholesome romance is well told. Those people who think that interest is to be found only in polite society would better not read this story; but those who know that the plainest and rudest lives can be successfully dramatized, and that pure water flows from fountains deep in the woods, will be interested in this close and conscientious study of a phase of life which in the nature of things is passing.

Hands of Esau (The). By Margaret Deland. Harper & Brothers, New York. $1.

This is a short tale well told; the motive cannot be stated without relating the story, which would not be fair to the book. It is not a commonplace motive, and it is not treated in a commonplace way. To characterize it as a study in psychology would be to overload it. It is not the statement of a problem, though there is a problem involved; it is hardly in a strict sense a story; but it is a significant incident in the lives of two people, and it is well dramatized.

Clean Heart (The). By A. S. M. Hutchinson. Little, Brown & Co., Boston. $1.35.

Mr. Hutchinson, by his "Once Aboard the Lugger" and "The Happy Warrior," quickly won a place among the new school, vigorous, younger English story-tellers. "The Clean Heart" is not as spontaneous nor as well built as "The Happy Warrior," but it is unusual in subject, has moving and humorous episodes, and has also the great merit of growing in attractiveness as it proceeds, despite a rather nebulous ending. It begins with a study of neurasthenia leading to actual delusion—not agreeable, certainly, but psychologically faithful. The leading idea of the story is that the young literary man Wriford has lost his mental balance because he is too self-centered and self-conscious, and that only by getting out of himself and coming to know through the self-sacrifice and love of others what these things are can he become normal and happy. There is some inconsistency here, as Wriford's mental breakdown is actually due to overwork, worry, and discomfort endured by him while carrying the burdens of selfish, exacting, and disagreeable people who really have little claim upon him. But be this as it may, his semi-lunatical adventures with the delightful old drunkard Preddlebox are as amusing as they are singular. Also interesting and more probable are his experiences as school-teacher under the nominal control of another drunkard—this time a weak and contemptible wretch. The love story is not well managed, although Essie herself is a delightfully downright and lovable girl.

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BY THE WAY

A woman subscriber to The Outlook makes the pertinent suggestion that "this year, instead of spending a lot of money on often useless and meaningless Christmas gifts, money be diverted into contributions for the Red Cross and other organizations that are devoting themselves to helping the sufferers from the war in Europe."

As a result of the campaign of a "South American Trade Special" train on the Lehigh Valley Railroad, devoted to showing Pennsylvania manufacturers how to win customers in South America, it is stated that five car-loads of machinery were recently shipped to Valparaiso, Chile, from Wilkes-Barre. The train's experts held meetings both day and night at which methods of winning trade were explained to makers of many kinds of commodities.

An interesting collection of war maps, photographs, and diagrams has been placed on exhibition in the Geological Library (Room 301, Schermerhorn Hall) at Columbia University, New York City. A bird's-eye view of western Europe showing the topographic features of the countries traversed by the contending armies, maps of the fortifications of Paris, specimen aeroplane maps used by the aviation corps, detailed maps of some of the battlefields, and photographs of typical scenery are exhibited. The locations of the contending armies from day to day are shown on the several maps. The collection is open to the public between 9 A.M. and 5 P.M. on week-days. During the month of October it will also be open Sundays from 2 to 5 P.M.

In an investigation lately as to the value of a New York City daily, a newspaper broker stated it as his conviction that a daily paper can seldom be run successfully by an administrative council that is without a responsible head. "I don't believe any five men have ability to run such a business," he said, "although any one of them might." The experts who testified at this investigation generally agreed that personality is still the main factor in successful journalism.

An official statement some time ago announced that the application of the Prince of Wales to go to the front had been denied by Field Marshal Earl Kitchener, Secretary of State for War. Previous statements from English sources copied by American papers, including The Outlook, stated that the Prince was to go, and he undoubtedly wished to do so. The Prince has not yet completed his military training, and it is not thought desirable by the authorities that he should go into active service at the present time.

When Rostand was writing "L'Aiglon," according to a reported conversation with him, he was greatly wrought up and resented the slightest interruption. He secured privacy in a way which he considered "rather original." "'Do you know what I did?' he asked. 'You could never guess. I sat in a bath-tub all day! In this way no one could come and disturb me, and I was left alone.'" It is to be presumed that the author was at this time affluent enough to have a private bath-room, the use of which he could monopolize without inconveniencing other lovers of cleanliness and a quiet life.

Albacore and tuna, fish which until recently have been found only in the Mediterranean in sufficient quantities to form the basis of an industry, are said now to be caught in enormous quantities along the coast of southern California. At San Pedro a fleet of gasoline launches finds profitable employment during the season in catching these fish for the packers.

Of the late Darius Miller, President of the Chicago, Burlington, and Quincy Railroad, the "Railway Age Gazette" says: "Even after he became President of the great Burlington system he received in his office almost all who called on him and listened smilingly and patiently to all they had to say. He never seemed ruffled, never seemed in a hurry, never seemed to have a single worry."

Little Mary's mother, a facetious contributor to the "Ladies' Home Journal" tells us, was writing a letter to her sister one day, and Mary, who did everything her mother did, began to write also. As the little girl commenced her letter she looked up and asked, "Mamma, how do you spell 'Aunt'—the kind that ain't a bug?"

"Mighty Lak' a Rose," the song alluded to in the Spectator's observations about the movies in The Outlook of September 16, was, according to a correspondent, written by Frank L. Stanton, of the Atlanta "Constitution," and not by Paul Laurence Dunbar, as the Spectator stated.

California's newly awakened volcano, Mount Lassen, continues its activity; the other day it opened up a new crater—the fourth—and its eruption was accompanied by an earthquake.

A correspondent who is bold enough to say that he can pronounce "cwrw" and "cwmbrwynag" says that "Przemysl" stumps him and asks for help. If he will omit the r from the word, regard z and s as equivalent to our "sh," and call y "short i," the phonetic spelling will be *pshe'mishl*, and as such it is given in the new Standard Dictionary. Our correspondent adds: "The Czar has partly freed the Poles. Let us hope that he will soon open his heart and free Madame Breshkovsky." Americans, without regard to their various abilities in pronouncing European proper names, will echo this sentiment with enthusiasm.

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